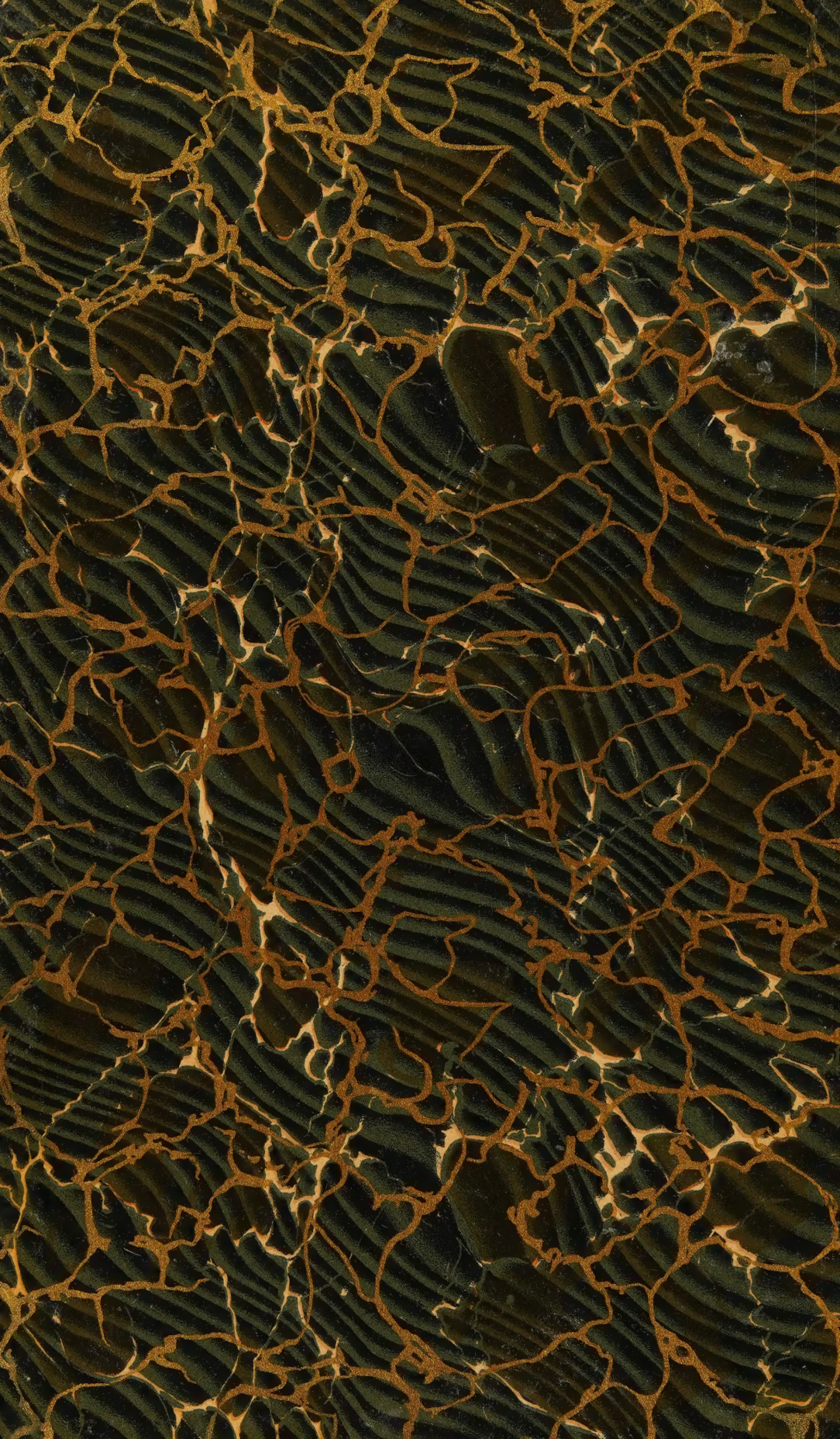
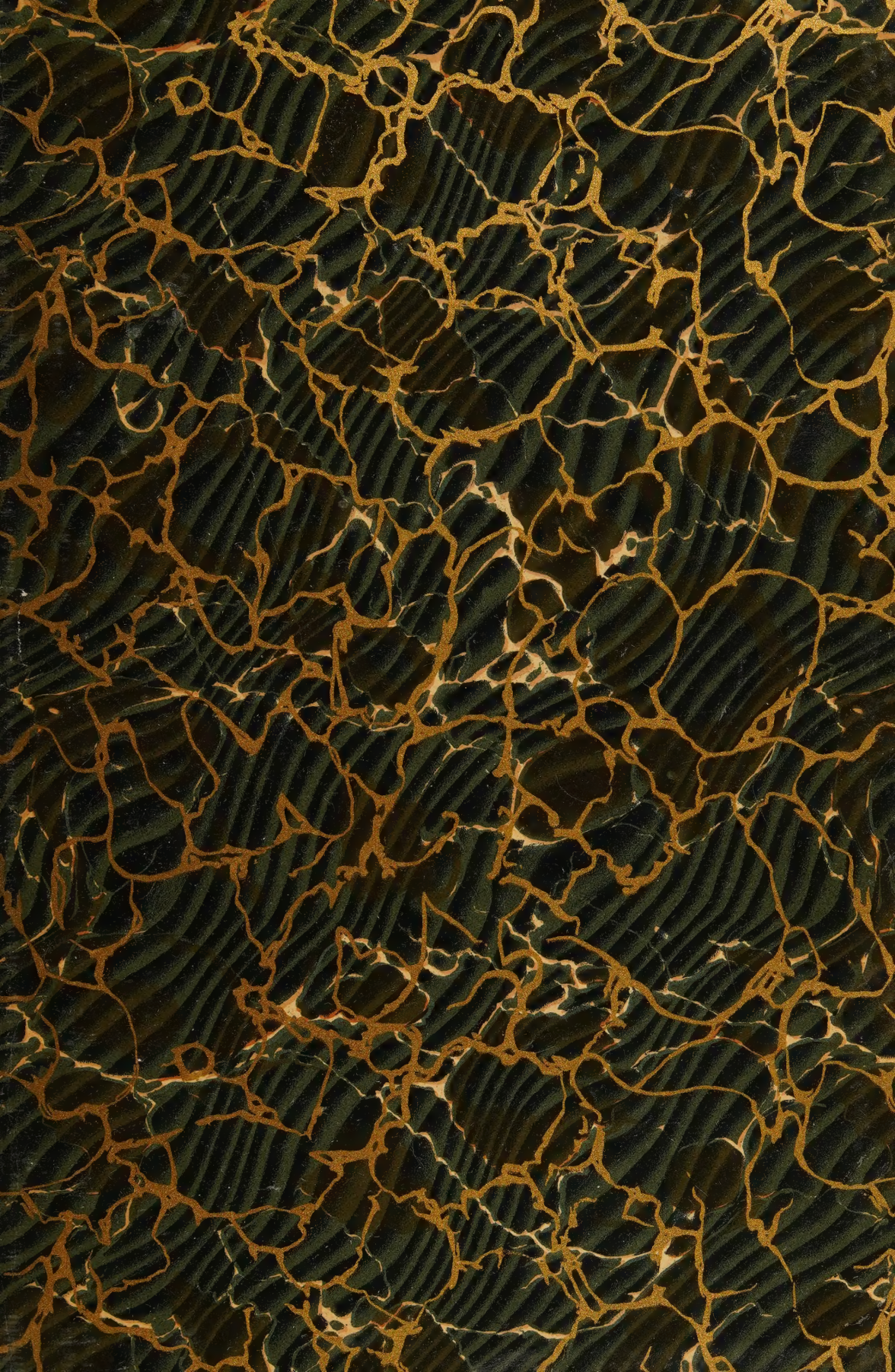
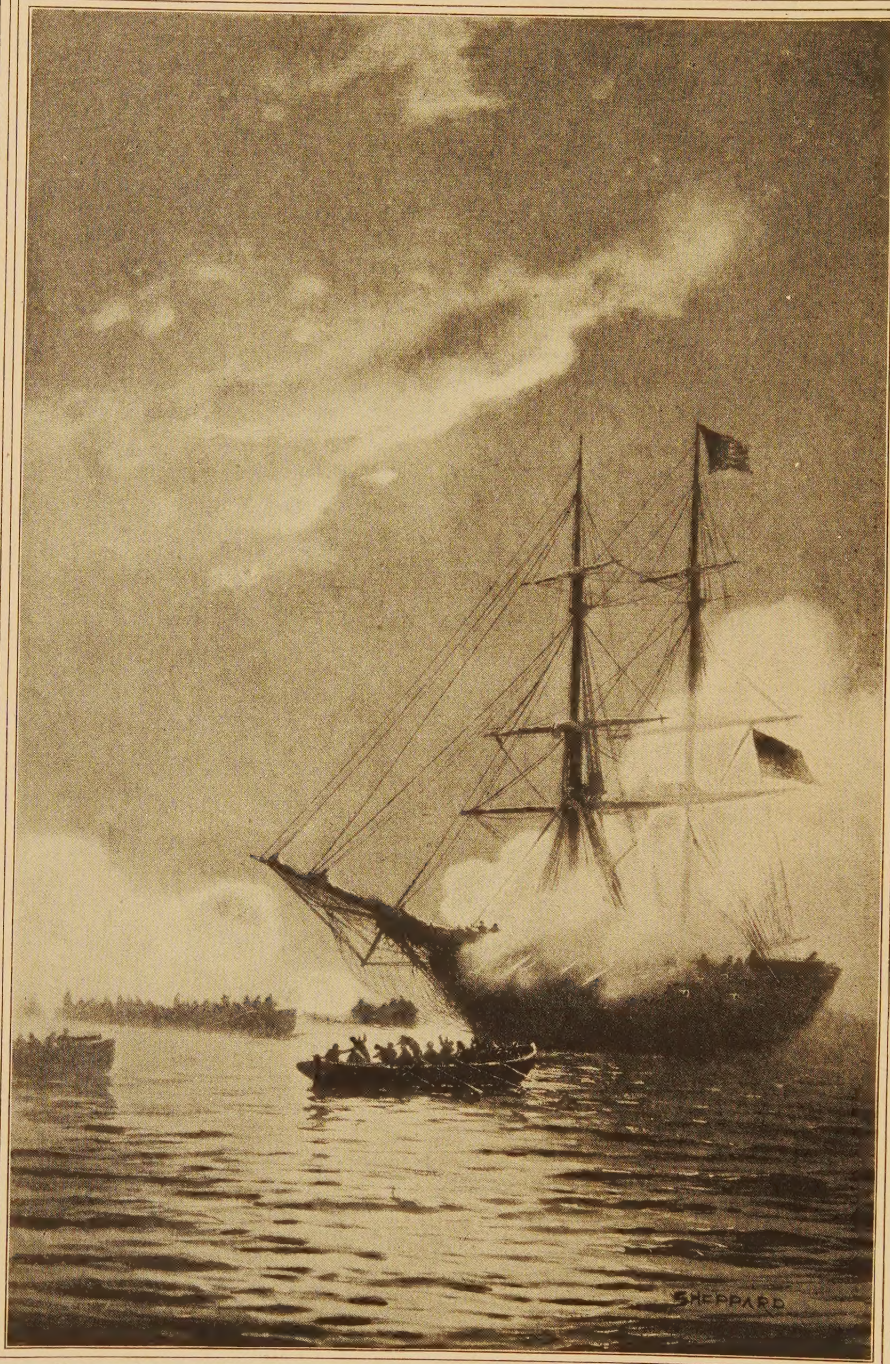








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THROUGH THE LONG SEPTEMBER NIGHT.

Original by

WARREN SHEPPARD.

This scene is laid in the neutral harbor of Fayal, one of the Azores group, lying west of Portugal. On the night of September 25th, 1814, the privateer, General Armstrong, entered the port for provision, and the same object led a British squadron to halt there. The American had but ninety men in its crew, and nine guns. There were three vessels in the British squadron, one of seventy-four guns, one of thirty-eight, and the other eighteen. The combined British crews numbered two thousand men. A battle ensued which was sharp, and decisive, in favor of the American. This particular naval battle was in the main one of the great causes of Jackson's victory at New Orleans, as it delayed the British expedition until four days after Jackson had arrived there.

THE HISTORY *of* OUR COUNTRY

*From the Discovery of America
to the Present Time*

INCLUDING A COMPREHENSIVE HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION,
COPIOUS ANNOTATIONS, A LIST OF AUTHORITIES AND REFER-
ENCES, ETC. PROFUSELY AND BEAUTIFULLY ILLUSTRATED. MAPS,
CHARTS, PORTRAITS, FAMOUS HISTORIC SCENES AND EVENTS, AND
A SERIES OF BEAUTIFUL POLYCHROMATIC PLATES

By EDWARD S. ELLIS, A. M.

AUTHOR OF "THE STANDARD HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES"
"YOUNG PEOPLE'S HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES", "THE
ECLECTIC PRIMARY HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES", ETC.

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UNITED STATES ARMY AND NAVY UNIFORMS — War of 1812

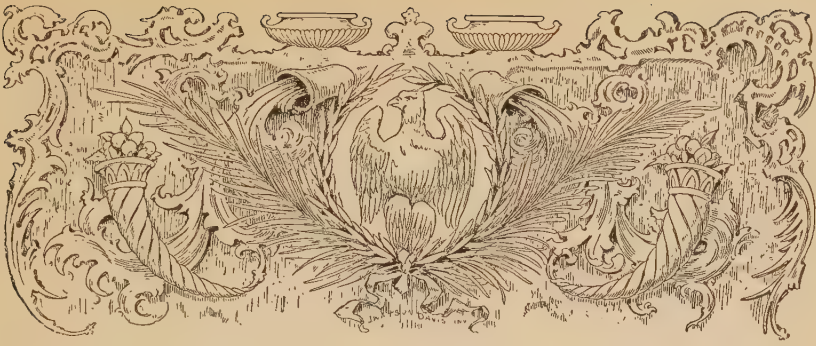
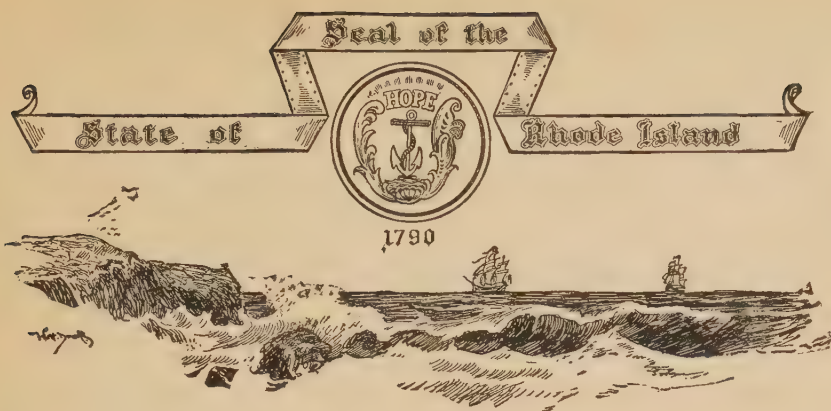


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PERIOD IV—THE REPUBLIC AND THE CONSTITUTION

CHAPTER I

FORMATION OF THE CONSTITUTION

[*Author's Note:* With the cessation of hostilities came the return of peace, happily typified by the withdrawal of Washington into the private life of a citizen at Mount Vernon. The country's annals now pass from the militant into the political and administrative stage, with the adoption of a federal constitution and the organization of a national administration. When the Articles of Confederation were at length agreed to, a federal convention arranged the details of the new government, while the people's choice fell upon Washington as its first head. When this had been done, the league of States became *de facto* a nation, which now sets out on its onward beneficent course. A brief outline of the chief features and provisions of the Constitution, administrative, legislative, and judicial, is supplied in the present chapter. The more important of the many authorities of the charter and institutions of the nation and the individual States are as follows: Vol. I Bryce's "American Commonwealth," Story's "Commentaries," Von Holst's "Constitutional History," Bancroft's "History of the Constitution," Curtis' "Constitutional History of the United States," and Fiske's "Critical Period of American History," together with the lives of the American statesmen who figured in the early political and diplomatic history of the nation.]



THE United States had gained its independence and a place among the nations. A career of wonderful growth and prosperity was before it; but the close of the struggle left the several States in a woeful condition. They were exhausted by the sacrifices, the fightings, the hardships, the sufferings and the tremendous drain upon their resources. They seemed like a young giant brought to the verge of death by illness, but with enough vitality left to give hope of convalescence and renewed strength.



INDEPENDENCE HALL

The following notations will help to give a realistic idea of the times at the close of the Revolution:

Every gentleman wore a queue and powdered his hair. Imprisonment for debt was a common practice. There was not a public library in the United States. Almost all the furniture was imported from England. An old copper mine in Connecticut was used as a prison. There was only one hat factory, and that made cocked hats. A day laborer considered himself well paid with two shillings a day. Crockery plates were objected to because they dulled the knives. A man who jeered at the preacher or criticised the sermon was fined. Virginia contained a fifth of the whole population of the country. A gentleman bowing to a lady always scraped his foot on the ground. Two stage-coaches bore all the travel between New York and Boston. The whipping-post and pillory were still standing in Boston and New York. Beef, pork, salt fish, potatoes, and hominy were the staple diet all the year round. Buttons were scarce and expensive, and the trousers were fastened with pegs or laces. There were no manufactures in this country, and every housewife raised her own flax and made her own linen. The church collection was taken in a bag at the end of a pole, with a bell attached to rouse sleepy contributors. Leather breeches, a checked shirt, a red flannel jacket, and a cocked hat, formed the dress of an artisan. When a man had enough tea he placed his spoon across his cup to indicate that he wanted no more. A new arrival in a jail was set upon by his fellow-prisoners and robbed of everything he had.

In the constructive work of consolidating the young nation, a greater task than the Revolution now confronted the statesmen and patriots of the country. The Continental Congress had managed affairs during the war. The body had little power, however, beyond that of advising the States. The struggle for existence held the thirteen colonies together during those stormy days, but when independence was secured, it soon became evident that the Union was a "rope of sand." The various States had formed local constitutions of their own; when they chose they obeyed the national government, and when they did not choose to do so—which was generally the case—they paid no heed to Congress.

The Articles of Confederation were agreed upon by Congress in 1777. They attempted to define the powers that were to be given to the Federal authority, so as to check the encroachments of the

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Delay in
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States. The Articles could not be effective until adopted by all the States. Within the following two years, twelve accepted them, but Maryland would not give her consent until near the close of the war, or, more specifically, March 1, 1781. This long delay was caused by the disputes over the boundaries of the States. The western boundaries of New Hampshire, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland, had been fixed by the King of England, and they, therefore, had no claim to extend further westward. New York insisted that she had no western boundary, though she was willing that it should be made as it was finally fixed at a later period. Massachusetts, Connecticut, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia were supposed originally to reach to the Pacific. The transfer of Louisiana to Spain in 1763 interposed the Mississippi as the western boundary, to which line they asserted their territory extended.*

The
Boun-
dary Dis-
putes

If the reader will look at the map he will see that, with the exception of Virginia, all the States claiming the Mississippi as their western limit were bounded north and south, by parallel lines. Virginia set up a remarkable claim, which was that her northern boundary ran northwest, so that it widened out like a fan in the direction of the Pacific, and included all the present States of Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Michigan, and overlapped the claims of Massachusetts and Connecticut. The States whose western boundaries had been fixed, naturally opposed these extravagant claims. They argued that the King, by forbidding the sale of lands west of the Alleghenies, made those mountains the western boundaries for the other colonies, and, since the thirteen States had won this territory together from England they ought to share it among themselves. General confusion was the result. Some States sold lands in the West to which other States laid claim, while those who had

*As a proof of the straits to which the colonies were reduced during the Revolution, the different locations of the national capital may be given. It was in Philadelphia from September 5, 1774, until December, 1776; at Baltimore from December 20, 1776, to March, 1777; at Philadelphia from March 4, 1777, to September, 1777; at Lancaster, Pa., from September 27, 1777, to September 30, 1777; at York, Pa., from September 30, 1777, to July, 1778; at Philadelphia from July 2, 1778, to June 30, 1783; at Princeton, N. J., from June 30, 1783, to November 20, 1783; at Annapolis, Md., from November, 1783, to November, 1784; Trenton, N. J., from November, 1784, to January, 1785; New York from January 11, 1785, to 1790, when the seat of Government was changed to Philadelphia, where it remained until 1800, since which time it has been at Washington.

no ownership in them denounced the whole thing as wrong. Maryland would not agree to the Articles of Confederation until she received pledges that these western claims should be abandoned.

Now followed a general surrender of the alleged rights. New York yielded hers in 1780, Virginia in 1784, Massachusetts in 1785, Connecticut in 1786, South Carolina in 1787, North Carolina in

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DANIEL SHAYS' INSURRECTION

1790, and Georgia in 1802. The western boundaries were thus fixed as they are to-day. Connecticut, however, retained a large tract in Northeastern Ohio, which is still known as the Western Reserve. Massachusetts insisted upon her right to a portion of New York, which latter State in time bought off the claim. Connecticut also clung to the Wyoming settlement in Pennsylvania, but finally gave it up.

The Articles of Confederation needed but a trial to prove their worthlessness. Congress, the one governing body, had no power to lay taxes, regulate commerce, or punish crime. The stronger States passed laws which injured the weaker ones, and there was as yet no

Sur-
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by States

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way to stop the aggression. Great Britain, moreover, still oppressed our commerce, and Congress was powerless to take or secure united action to restrain her. Everyone saw that something must be done, for matters were rapidly growing worse; but there was no agreement upon the proper remedy. There was talk of forming several confederacies. The people of western North Carolina, in August, 1784, declared themselves independent of North Carolina. They adopted a constitution, in November, 1785, and formed themselves into the State of Franklin, or Frankland, with John Sevier as governor. North Carolina ordered the officers to disband. Seven counties were in operation, and they refused to dissolve. Two governments existed in each county, and every man was allowed to select the government to which he would pay taxes. Thus two opposing governments ran side by side, manifestly a most extraordinary state of affairs. In 1788, however, the State of Franklin went out of existence and merged into North Carolina.

Meanwhile, the Wyoming settlers revolted against Pennsylvania; a convention in Portland, Me., debated the question of making that State independent; and the legislature of New Hampshire was surrounded by an armed mob, who insisted that no taxes whatever should be collected. Everybody was poor and lacked the money to pay taxes. Daniel Shays, formerly a captain in the Continental army, at the head of two thousand men in Massachusetts, demanded the remission of all taxation, with the issue of a large amount of paper money. Congress was obliged to send four thousand troops, under General Lincoln, to disperse the mob. The country was fast drifting into anarchy, and these ominous events proved that the only way to avert destruction was by the formation of a strong central government. Earnest discussions were held in the library at Mount Vernon, by Washington, Hamilton, and other statesmen. Finally Washington, following the suggestion made by Hamilton several years before, proposed a convention of the States to form a plan for a union in commercial matters, over which Congress had no control. The request from such a source could not be slighted, and a convention of the States was called at Annapolis. When the deputies met, on the 11th of September, 1786, the only States represented were New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Virginia. These being a minority of the whole, a resolution was passed recommending a meeting at Philadelphia in the follow-

The
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Stable
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ment



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UPPER WALL STREET, NEW YORK, IN 1783

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ing May. The proceedings were reported to Congress, which urged the holding of such a convention as the one named. All the States responded, except Rhode Island, which remained out of the Union until 1790.

The Convention which met in Independence Hall, Philadelphia, in May, 1787, included some of the ablest men in the country, among whom were Washington, James Madison, Benjamin Franklin, Alexander Hamilton, Benjamin West, Edmund Randolph, Robert Morris, and Gouverneur Morris. Washington was chosen as the presiding officer. Week after week, until four months had gone by, did these men argue, discuss, agree and disagree, sometimes being on the point of irruption, while the Constitution was gradually moulded into shape. The small States, which at that time were New York, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland, were very jealous of the larger ones, from whom they feared oppression, through their preponderating power over legislation in the new government. This was guarded against by giving each State in the Union two members of the United States Senate, while the number of members of the House of Representatives was to be based upon the population of the respective States. The Southern States wished to continue the slave trade, and the abhorred traffic was permitted for twenty years. Finally, on September 17, 1787, the convention agreed upon the Constitution of the United States and adjourned.

Agree-
ment
upon the
Consti-
tution

The Constitution was to go into effect when ratified by nine of the States. It provided a central government, which could not only advise but act. It consisted of three departments: the legislative, or Congress, to make the laws; the executive, consisting of the President and his officers, to enforce the laws made by Congress; and the judicial, consisting of the Federal courts, to decide whether the laws passed were in agreement with the Constitution.

Princi-
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The legislative department, or law-making power, was composed of two branches, the Senate and the House of Representatives. As has already been said, each State was entitled to two members of the Senate, who served for six years. The Representatives served for two years, and were apportioned according to the population of a State, thus guaranteeing every member of the Union against oppressive legislation from the more populous States, and giving at the same time to each a recognition of its population. Congress imposed taxes, borrowed money, regulated commerce, coined money, declared

war, raised and supported armies and navies, established post-offices, and employed the army to suppress insurrections. None of the States could do these things, but each could levy its own local taxes, borrow money on its own account, and use its own militia. The united majority of each branch was sufficient to pass a law; but if the President should veto a bill within ten days after its passage, it then required a two-thirds vote of each house to make it a law. All treaties made by the President required the assent of two-thirds of the members of the Senate before they could go into effect.

The President, with some checks on the part of the Senate, chose the executive officers. We must bear in mind that no man was to vote directly for the President and Vice-President. Each State chose as many Presidential electors as it had Senators and Representatives together, and a majority of these selected the President and Vice-President. At first each elector named two persons, and the candidate receiving the highest electoral vote became President, and the candidate with the next highest vote became Vice-President. There was so protracted a struggle in 1804 growing out of this arrangement, that a change was made, so that each elector thereafter voted for one name for President, and one for Vice-President. Electors had the right to vote for whom they chose, but it was considered dishonorable for an elector to vote for anyone not nominated by his party, and no one, with a single exception hereinafter explained, has ever done so. The reader will observe the advantage of this method. If the highest two officers were chosen by popular vote, some populous State might give a fraudulent majority of hundreds of thousands, and perhaps decide the election for all the other States where the vote is close. Thus one State in modern times could have cheated more than forty others; but, as provided by the Constitution, such dishonesty would affect only the single State in which it was perpetrated.

The President was chosen for four years, and was commander-in-chief of the army and navy, and appointed most of the officers, which appointments, as a rule, required approval by the Senate before they became valid. If the President misbehaved he could be impeached, that is, accused, by the House of Representatives, and tried by the Senate, sitting as a court. If convicted and removed, or if he should die or resign, or become unable to perform the duties of his office, the Vice-President succeeded him. Congress in 1886

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How Our
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How the
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The
Supreme
Court

passed the Presidential Succession Act making the order of succession run through the Vice-President, Secretaries of State, Treasury, and War, the Attorney-General, the Postmaster-General, and the Secretaries of the Navy and Interior.

The Supreme Court, together with such inferior courts as Congress should establish, constituted the Judiciary Department. The judges were appointed for life by the President and subject to confirmation by the Senate. If there were doubt as to the constitutionality of a law, it was first interpreted by one of the inferior courts, and if this were not satisfactory, the question was carried by appeal to the Supreme Court, whose decision was final, there being no recourse beyond that tribunal.

Since slavery existed for a long time after the adoption of the Constitution, it was provided that three-fifths of the slaves should be counted in calculating the population for apportionment for Representatives. Slaves who fled from one State into another could be followed and arrested wherever found. The unorganized territory of the United States was to be governed by Congress, which body was to admit new States as they were organized. Each State was to be guaranteed a republican form of government, and it was within the power of a popular majority in three-fourths of the States to amend the Constitution after previous passage of such amendment by two-thirds of both houses of Congress.

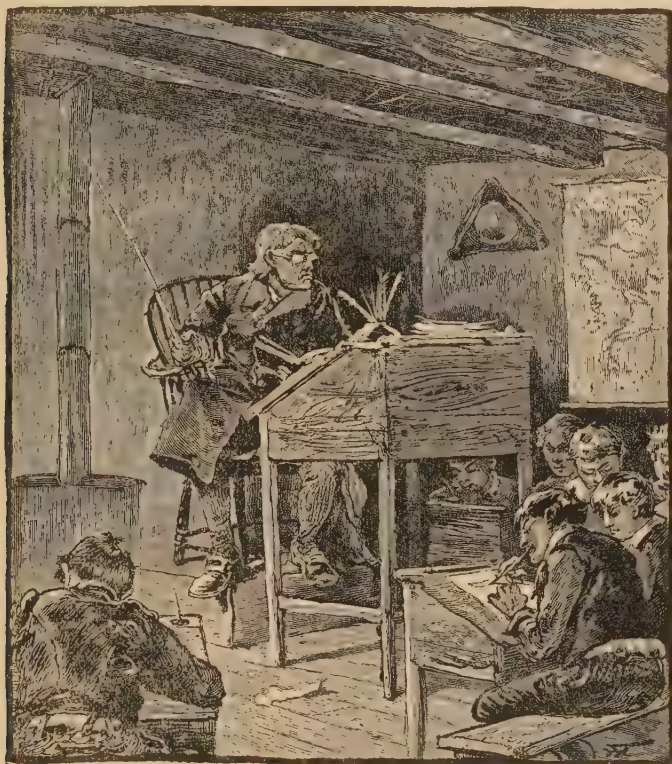
Suprem-
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The Constitution is the supreme law of the land. It gives us one of the most beneficent forms of government ever designed by the wisdom of man. Everyone should study its provisions with the utmost care. As amendments have become necessary, they have been adopted, but the Constitution stands substantially as it came from the master-minds of those who first gave it form and substance, and under which we have since become the greatest of nations.

There was at first strong opposition to the Constitution. Those who favored it were called "Federalists." They wished to increase the powers of the national government and make it respected and feared at home and abroad. The "anti-Federalists" took the opposite ground. They stood for State rights. They were jealous of Congress, and feared that, if so much power was given to the central government, a monarchy by-and-by would be established. Nevertheless, the Constitution was so eminently wise and beneficial, that it was adopted by nine States, followed soon after by Virginia and New

York. North Carolina ratified it in 1789, and Rhode Island, the last to give adhesion, in 1790. As soon as the ninth State had taken this action, the Congress of the Confederation named March 4, 1789, as the date on which the new government should go into operation. New York was selected as the meeting-place, and a day was fixed on which the people were to choose electors and a subsequent day was

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A COLONIAL SCHOOL-ROOM

appointed when those electors should meet in their States and vote for President and Vice-President. This was done, the elections being held in each of the eleven States which had ratified the Constitution, with the exception of New York, whose legislature had made no provision for the election. Sixty-nine electoral votes were cast, of which Washington received every one. His is the only instance in the history of the Electoral College up to and including 1916, in which the President has been chosen by a unanimous vote. The

The New
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Our
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in 1789

second largest vote, in the first Presidential election, was thirty-four, which was cast for John Adams, who in accordance with the rule then prevailing, became Vice-President.

It must be remembered that the Congress of the Confederation was in session in New York while the Philadelphia convention was framing the Constitution. During this period, Congress organized a territorial government for the immense region northwest of the Ohio. An ordinance for its admission as the Northwest Territory was reported by a committee of Congress July 11, 1787. Among the provisions were the exclusion of slavery, the guarantee of religious freedom, trial by jury, and equal political rights. The Territory was to be governed by persons appointed by Congress, though when the population sufficiently increased it was to be formed into five States, which should be admitted into the Union with all the rights of the original States. This was the law under which Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin became States.

It will be interesting to glance at the country as it was when the national government came into existence. The total population, not counting Indians, was 3,929,827, of whom 757,365 were of African descent. In 1910 the single State of New York contained more people than were in the whole country, including the Indians, at the close of the Revolution. There was then not a city with 25,000 population, the largest being Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Charleston. Here and there in those cities one would find roomy, comfortable mansions, but with few of the conveniences that were in the most humble of dwellings in later days. The streets were poorly paved and lighted, and never clean. Water was brought from the town-pump or well, gas was unknown, and the flint and steel were used when a fire was needed. No one had as yet dreamed of the railway, though crude attempts had been made at steam navigation. As for lucifer matches, sewing-machines, steam printing-presses, gas, electric lighting, and scores of other modern conveniences, there were those living in the opening of the twentieth century who could remember when they first came into use.

In modern times most of our population is in cities, but at that time people generally lived on farms. About everything used by the farmer and his family, even their clothing, was produced from his land. Rural life was harder in New England than anywhere else, for crops were raised more easily in the Middle and Southern States

and more readily sold. Newspapers were few, and so were amusements. Life was made up almost wholly of labor and rest.

In 1917 the journey from New York to Philadelphia was made by rail in two hours, by automobile in about the same time. A hundred years earlier, it required two days. Sailing-vessels served along the coast, while in the interior travel and transportation were by stage, on horseback, or on foot. Often contrary winds kept the traveler two weeks on the voyage between New York and Albany. A native American who had crossed the ocean was an object of wondering curiosity on the streets. The settlements were then mainly confined to the coast. New York was an Indian hunting-ground beyond Schenectady, and the whole country between the Alleghenies and the Mississippi, except a few settlements in Kentucky and Tennessee, was a wilderness.

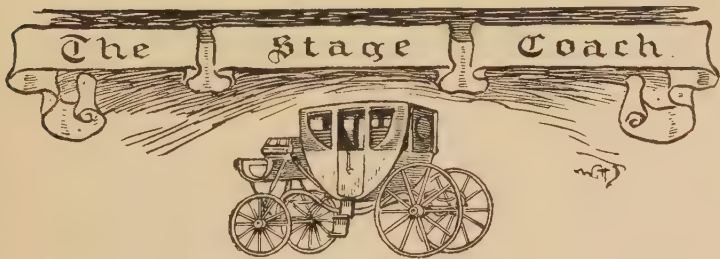
The schools had improved only a little over those of Colonial times. The teacher was generally a harsh man, whose chief work lay in enforcing order by means of the "gad," which was always lying within reach on his desk. The books were few and poor, the benches were uncomfortable, and the rooms badly heated in winter. Yet boys and girls cheerfully trudged miles through the deep snow or trying heat, and from their ranks have risen those who have helped to make the people instructed, our homes happy, and our country great.

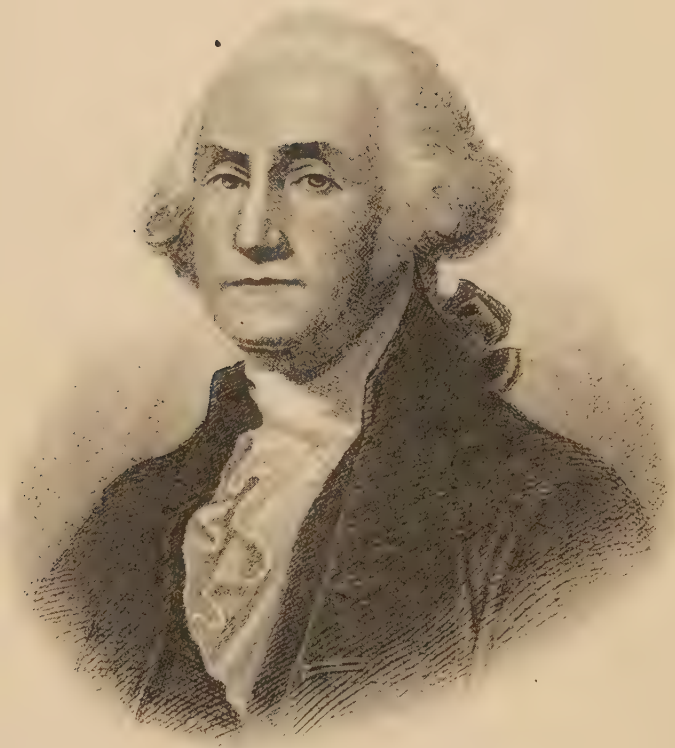
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The
Methods
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The
Schools





George Washington

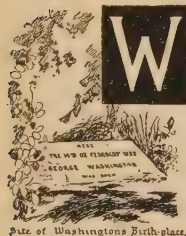


Fori George.

CHAPTER II

WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION—FIRST TERM, 1789–1793

[*Author's Note:* Elevated by his work and worth to the highest honor of the country which owed its existence to his wisdom and his sword, Washington, after the inauguration ceremonies, modestly assumed the functions of his high office and entered upon his administrative duties. The ovations received by the first President on his triumphal progress to the seat of government were in sharp contrast with the uncheered marchings of the weary soldier during the long and darkened years of the war. As the former days, with the trials that beset them, were recalled, well might Washington exclaim: "Let those follow the pursuits of ambition and fame who have a keener relish for them; they have no fascinating allurements for me!" When the country had to be served, as he best could serve it, there was no holding back, however, nor any slackness in the spirit or chill in the devotion of the country's hero as he addressed himself to the labor of his new tasks. Fortunate was the nation in having as the first administrator of its affairs one who so signally fixed upon them the impress of his own high and sterling character. The authorities for the period are, notably, the "Life of Washington" by Sparks, Marshall, and Irving. See, also, the constitutional histories already referred to; Lodge's "Alexander Hamilton" (American Statesmen Series); and McMaster's "History of the People of the United States."]



WHY is the name of George Washington honored above all others in America, and revered throughout the civilized world? There is no other character that shines with greater luster in the pages of history, and it will remain undimmed through the ages to come. And yet Washington was not an orator; he had only a fair education; and, since his death, there have been many equally skilled in statecraft; but no other nation or country has ever produced his equal. Some patriots have approached him in many of his high qualities, but not in all. He was

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truthful, high-minded, an affectionate son and husband, charitable, the soul of honor, and a religious man, but so have been and so are thousands of others. But he was more than all these.



GEORGE WASHINGTON

A Com-
bination
of
Virtues

It is rare in history that the life of a great nation depends upon one man. No name towers above the others in our second war with Great Britain, and had all the leaders in the terrific years from 1861 to 1865 never been born, the cause of the Union would have tri-

umphed just the same; but, had Washington been slain at Trenton or at Princeton or at Germantown, the Revolution would have ended then and there, for no other man then lived who was fitted to take his place and to perform his stupendous work. He was appointed of heaven, and so, though exposed many a time to peril, he was never wounded, but lived until his task was finished, and then lay down on

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—



WASHINGTON'S PRAYER AT VALLEY FORGE

his bed and peacefully died at Mount Vernon. When the sad news of his passing was borne across the ocean, Napoleon Bonaparte, the most wonderful military genius of all time, declared that no greater man had ever lived, and the flags of the British fleet, under Lord Bridport, were half-masted for the one person that had wrested the American colonies from Great Britain.

Wash-
ington
the
Indis-
pensable
Man

When Washington drew his sword, in 1775, serving to the close without pay, he saw the end from the beginning. He knew his country would conquer, and no discouragement, no disaster, no treachery, no envy and plotting, could shake his exalted faith or cause him to falter in the work to which he had dedicated his life, his energies, his soul, his all. A man of wealth and possessing a large estate, he did not visit his home, that was meanwhile falling into ruin, for more than six years, fearing that it might imperil the cause of

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Washing-
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Beautiful
Char-
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liberty for him to leave his post for even a brief season. He could be stern and shoot the soldiers who repeated the attempt to revolt at Morristown, and he could hang, while he pitied, Major André, because the good of his country demanded it. He could ride through the blinding sleet in the storm and darkness to Trenton and direct the cannon that played upon the affrighted Hessians, and then visit with tearful sympathy the bedside of the dying Rall, who begged him, without need therefor, to show consideration to his captured soldiers. Gaunt and hungry with his shivering troops at Valley Forge, he stole off into the wintry woods, and kneeling on the snow, poured out his soul in supplication to heaven. He was terrible in his wrath, as when he ordered the traitor Lee to the rear at Monmouth. He was great enough to spurn the crown offered him by his soldiers, and when President he gathered the ablest men around him, caring naught whether they were friends or enemies, so that they were patriots. He stayed the madness of the hour when his country would have rushed pell-mell to the help of France in the throes of her agony. The soldier had become the statesman, and no other man ever combined the two in so eminent a degree as he.

Washington was the loftiest type of the patriot, rising like a mountain peak above the mists into the clear sunlight, where the shafts of malice, of envyings, of plots, and misgivings, could not reach or fret him. He saw and knew but one thing,—the good of his country. The Ship of State needed a master-hand to steer it clear of the rocks, the shoals, and the whirlpools, and to save it from wreck, and he alone was able to do it. When the ship reached smooth water, he resigned the helm to others, for not until then did he deem it safe to do so.

Sluggish
Methods
of the
Times

The inauguration of Washington, as President of the United States, was the only one ever held in the city of New York, and did not take place on the fourth or fifth of March, as has since been the custom. The government was slow in getting into operation, there being no quorum in the Senate until the 6th of April, and the votes of the Presidential electors could not be counted and declared until a quorum was obtained. It then required eight days to take the news to Washington, at Mount Vernon. The distance was measured by the best means of conveyance, the pony-express, carrying the United States mail.

It may be said that the inauguration ceremonies of Washington

began with his departure from Mount Vernon, and ended with his taking the oath of office in New York. He spent two days in making his preparations and started on April 16. His aged mother was still living and loaned him £600 to pay his expenses. The great, massive man, magnificent in stature and strength, took the fragile parent in his arms, pressed her to his heart, kissed her good-by, and

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WASHINGTON AT TRENTON

never saw her again on earth. Must not those dim eyes have lit up with love and gratitude as she realized the happiness of being the mother of such a son? Leaving her at Fredericksburg, Washington dined with his friends and admirers the next day at Alexandria. He was received at Georgetown the same afternoon with a great ovation, and the popular enthusiasm followed him every step of the way to the metropolis. At Chester he left his family carriage, and mounted upon a superb white horse, rode into Philadelphia, where it seemed as if every man, woman, and child had gathered to do him homage. As he passed under one of the many arches erected for the occasion, a young girl placed a laurel wreath upon his brow. The city was

The
Journey
from
Mount
Vernon

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Arrival
in New
York

brilliant with bunting, the houses were decorated, the bells clanged, and a Spanish frigate in the river fired a salute. At the old City Tavern, on Second and Chestnut Streets, a banquet was served and a grand reception given to the President-elect. The arch under which Washington passed at Trenton, while little girls dressed in white strewed his path with flowers and sang an ode, is still preserved as one of the precious heirlooms of the Revolution. At Elizabethport, he went on board the great barge which bore him to New York. This boat was one of the most perfect specimens of the shipbuilder's skill of those days, and was manned by thirteen masters of ships, representing the thirteen original Colonies. The joint-committee appointed by Congress to receive the President were on board. As the barge approached the city, it was surrounded and accompanied by many other boats, one of which sailed alongside, while a number of men sang an original ode, set to the music of "God Save the King." Washington was so deeply affected by these demonstrations that it is said he wept.

Governor Clinton, with his staff and many of his officers in full uniform, met Washington at the ferry stairs. The streets were crowded with the cheering multitudes, and bunting and flags were fluttering everywhere. The mayor and other municipal officers, the foreign ambassadors, and others, escorted the party to the Franklin House, where the President-elect afterwards dined with Governor Clinton. Washington wore on the occasion military breeches and a buff waistcoat, and a blue coat with brass buttons, and was a splendid picture of American manhood. The same suit may still be seen in the government museum at Washington.

The
Forms to
be Used

Since this was the first inauguration of a President, Congress anxiously discussed the forms which should be followed. One question which arose was as to how the President should be addressed. It was finally decided that he should receive the simple designation of "the President of the United States," and thus it has always been. The next problem was as to how he should be installed into office. The decision was that he should be sworn in on the balcony adjoining the Senate chamber, which was in the old Federal building, at the corner of Broad and Wall streets, later the site of the sub-treasury of the United States.

The 30th of April, the day appointed for the ceremony, was ushered in by the firing of a salute from Fort George, and the ring-

ing of the church bells throughout the city. Religious services were held in all the churches. At twelve o'clock a procession was formed and Washington, escorted by a troop of light dragoons and a legion of infantry, followed by committees of Congress and the heads of the departments in carriages, foreign ministers, and citizens, was driven to the place of inauguration. The small Federal building was

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INAUGURATION OF WASHINGTON

crowded. While the Senate was debating whether it should rise or sit when the President-elect entered, the House of Representatives, headed by the Speaker, marched into the chamber. The question had not been decided when Washington was announced by the joint-committee. As he appeared, everyone spontaneously rose and remained standing until the President-elect was seated. The chair was taken by John Adams, the Vice-President, who had been sworn into office some days before. Mr. Adams then announced to the joint body that George Washington, having been duly elected to the office of President of the United States, was now ready to take

The
First
Inaugura-
tion

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the oath of office prescribed by the Constitution. Washington was conducted to the balcony outside the Senate chamber. He was accompanied by John Adams, Governor Clinton, and Chancellor Livingston. The moment they appeared, they were greeted with tumultuous cheers, which Washington acknowledged by bowing very low, with his hand upon his heart. He wore a full dark-brown cloth suit, with white silk stockings, and silver-buckled shoes, all of American manufacture, and at his side hung a straight, plain, steel-hilted sword.

The
Oath
Admin-
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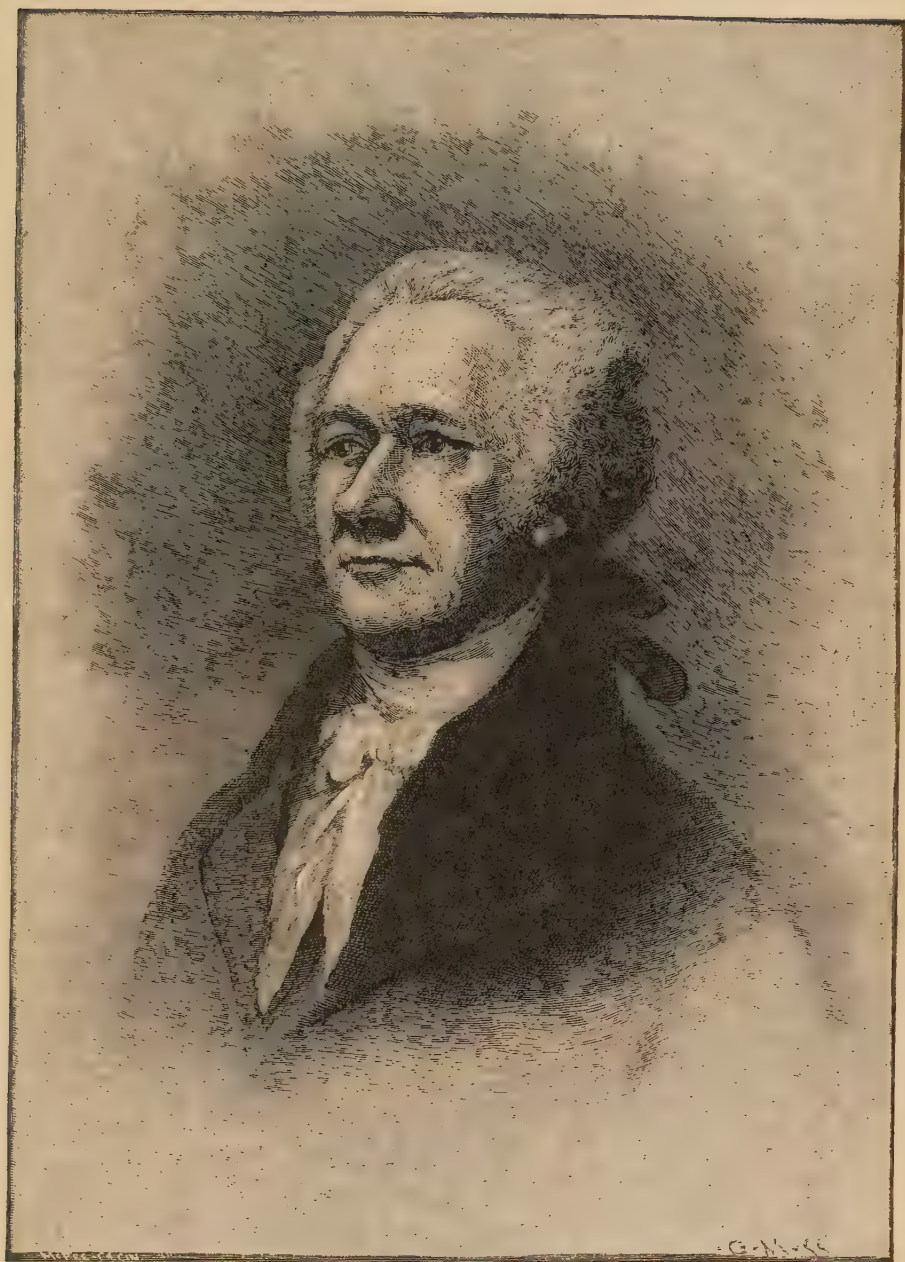
The impressive scene is preserved in bronze on the great eastern door of the Senate wing of the Capitol at Washington. Chancellor Livingston administered the oath, and Washington, bending low over the sacred volume, kissed it reverently, and looking heavenward said with solemn emphasis, "I swear, so help me God."* Turning towards the vast multitude, the chancellor waved his hand and cried, "Long live George Washington, President of the United States!" The crowd caught the cry and it rolled back and forth from the throats of a great concourse of people; a flag was run up on the cupola, the artillery thundered, and the bells rang joyfully. Then Washington returned to the Senate chamber and delivered his brief but memorable inaugural address. He lacked the graces of an orator, and it is said he was confused and embarrassed. Of its delivery Senator William Maclay, from Pennsylvania, remarks that:

Embar-
rassment
of Wash-
ington

"This great man was agitated and embarrassed more than ever he was by the leveled cannon or pointed musket. He trembled and several times could scarce make out to read, though it must be supposed he had often read it before. He put the fingers of his left hand in his pocket, changing the paper to his right. After some time he did the same with the fingers of his right hand. When he came to the words 'all the world' he made a flourish with his right hand which left rather an ungainly impression. I sincerely, for my part, wished all set ceremony in the hands of the dancing-masters, and that this first of men had read his address in the plainest manner without taking his eyes from the paper, for I felt hurt when he was not first in everything."

From the Senate chamber, Washington went to St. Paul's church, Broadway, where the chaplain of the Senate officiated. The crowd

*This Bible was then and has since been the property of the St. John's Lodge of Free Masons, of the city of New York.



ALEXANDER HAMILTON

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Social
and
Domestic
Arrange-
ments

was so dense that a carriage could not move. Later in the day, he returned to the hotel, after the evening's fireworks, on foot. And so ended the auspicious ceremonies.

The President made his home at the Franklin House, in Cherry street. Mrs. Washington received in great state every Friday evening between eight and nine o'clock. Quite often the President and Mrs. Washington went out driving in the forenoon. Washington, although thoroughly democratic in his principles, was fond of ceremony and insisted upon a proper recognition of his station. His state-coach was drawn by either four or six horses, with, usually, a pair of outriders in advance. The customary drive was by the Bowery to the Boston Post road, as far as Harlem. Then it led across the island in a slanting course by what is now St. Nicholas avenue, to about where 144th street is. There was a steep road from the plains to the heights, connecting with the old Bloomingdale road, by which the city was reached again along the drive down the west side. After a time Washington found the Franklin House, in Cherry street, inconveniently far from the center of the city. So he moved into the McComb mansion, on Broadway, below Trinity church. In 1793, he left New York, and, so far as known, never again visited the city.

Now the wisest of men often need counsel. Great as Washington was, he required advisers in his trying task, as have all of his successors. So he selected his Cabinet, as it is called, which consisted of four members: Thomas Jefferson, of Virginia, Secretary of State; Alexander Hamilton, of New York, Secretary of the Treasury; General Henry Knox, of Massachusetts, Secretary of War and Navy; Samuel Osgood, of Massachusetts, Postmaster-General; Edmund Randolph, of Virginia, Attorney-General.* Two of the most important members, Jefferson and Hamilton, disagreed from the first, and their association as Washington's advisers became very trying to

The
First
Cabinet

*Washington's complete list of Cabinet officers from first to last during his two terms of office were: Secretaries of State—John Jay of New York, Thomas Jefferson of Virginia; Edmund Randolph of Virginia, and Timothy Pickering of Massachusetts; Secretaries of the Treasury—Alexander Hamilton of New York, and Oliver Wolcott, Jr., of Connecticut; Secretaries of War—Henry Knox of Massachusetts, Timothy Pickering of Massachusetts, and James McHenry of Maryland; Postmasters-General (not officially recognized as members of the Cabinet until 1829)—Samuel Osgood of Massachusetts, Timothy Pickering of Massachusetts, and Joseph Habersham of Georgia; Attorneys-General—Edmund Randolph of Virginia, William Bradford of Pennsylvania, and Charles Lee of Virginia.

their chief. Hamilton, like Washington, was a Federalist, while Jefferson became the head of what at that time was the Republican, or Strict Construction, Party. Before long, Hamilton and Jefferson began lashing each other in the newspapers—a favorite method of quarreling among our forefathers. Washington, who appreciated the great qualities of both men, strove to act the part of peacemaker with the usual result—that is, no result at all. Jefferson withdrew from the Cabinet at the end of the year 1793, and was succeeded by Edmund Randolph, who very speedily got himself into trouble.

Important negotiations were going on at that time between our country and France. The French Minister gave his government to understand that with a few thousand dollars at his disposal he could favorably influence American affairs. He said that the idea was suggested to him by Randolph. This dispatch was intercepted by a British ship and sent to the British Minister in Philadelphia. Then Randolph resigned his office and published a "vindication." Some time after, the government made up an account of \$49,000 against Randolph, for moneys placed in his hands to meet the expenses of foreign intercourse. Being submitted to arbitrators, they decided against Randolph, who thereby lost his fortune.

Timothy Pickering, of Massachusetts, was transferred from the War Department to the Department of State, where he remained through the remainder of Washington's two terms of office and a portion of Adams' term. Then trouble came again because of the public (and doubtless truthful) charges that the French Directory had demanded bribes of the American commissioners sent by the State Department. Hamilton took a leading part in this wrangle, though he was not then a member of Adams' Cabinet. As the best remedy, Adams dismissed his whole Cabinet. Henry Knox filled the duties of Secretary of War and Navy with marked ability for years. He died from swallowing a chicken-bone. James McHenry, of Maryland, who succeeded him, held the office during the remainder of Washington's term and was with Adams until dismissed, in 1800, because of his opposition to Adams' policy, and his friendship for Hamilton. Osgood, the Postmaster-General, preferred to live in New York rather than to retain his office and live in Philadelphia. He therefore resigned when the seat of government was removed to the latter city. Pickering succeeded him temporarily, whose successor, Joseph Habersham, of Georgia, was Postmaster-General

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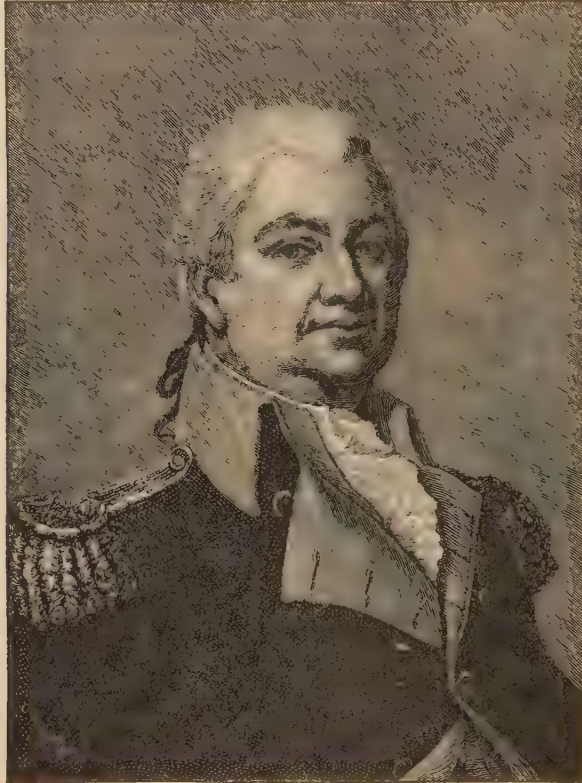
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Cabinet
Changes

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under Washington, Adams, and Jefferson, his term extending from February 15, 1795, until November 28, 1801, when he resigned to become president of a bank in Savannah.

The salaries of the first Cabinet officers were less than half of what they were one hundred years later. The Secretary of State received \$3,500 per annum, and other members \$3,000 each. A good



GENERAL HENRY KNOX

Salaries
of the
Cabinet
Officers

many years passed before the later figure—\$8,000—was fixed. A Secretary of the Navy was not appointed until 1798. Previous to that time, the naval department was under the charge of the Secretary of War, but when the government was organized, not a single vessel of the Continental navy remained, and the military establishment consisted of one regiment of foot, a battalion of artillery, and the militia of the various States. In 1829, during Jackson's administration, the Postmaster-General became a Cabinet officer, and the

Secretary of Agriculture was added during the administration of President Benjamin Harrison, in 1889.

The inauguration over, the new government addressed itself to the serious work before it. The most urgent need was the financial one, and fortunately the ablest financier of the country, Alexander Hamilton, was in charge of the important office. His scheme was submitted in writing to the House of Representatives, January 15, 1790. The foreign debt at that time, with accrued interest, amounted to nearly \$12,000,000, mostly due to France and private lenders in Holland. The domestic debt, including outstanding Continental money, with interest thereon, exceeded \$42,000,000. Hamilton urged that the national government should assume the federal foreign and domestic debts as well as those contracted by the different States. Although his plan was opposed, it was finally accepted, and with slight changes continued to be the policy of the government for more than twenty years. The State debts thus assumed were as follows: New Hampshire, \$300,000; Massachusetts, \$4,000,000; Rhode Island, \$200,000; Connecticut, \$1,600,000; New York, \$1,200,000; New Jersey, \$800,000; Pennsylvania, \$2,200,000; Delaware, \$200,000; Maryland, \$800,000; Virginia, \$3,000,000; North Carolina, \$2,400,000; Georgia, \$300,000; South Carolina, \$4,000,000—a total of \$21,000,000.

Hamilton proposed to fund the debt, issuing new certificates, and, in the warm discussions which followed, the lines were sharply drawn between the Federalists and the Anti-Federalists. At that time there were only three banks in the country—the Bank of New York, in New York; the Bank of North America, in Philadelphia; and the Bank of Massachusetts, in Boston,—all of which were State institutions. Hamilton advocated the establishment of a central, or national bank, with a capital of \$10,000,000, the government being one-fifth owner of the stock and a preferred borrower to the same amount. This scheme, too, was strongly opposed, but it became a law in 1791, and the bank was chartered for twenty years. The subscriptions required that one-fourth of the stock should be paid in gold or silver coin, and the remainder in six per cent. certificates of the bank. Within a few hours the whole number of shares was subscribed. The bank went into operation in February, 1794, and branches were established at different centers.

The means having been provided for funding the debt and borrow-

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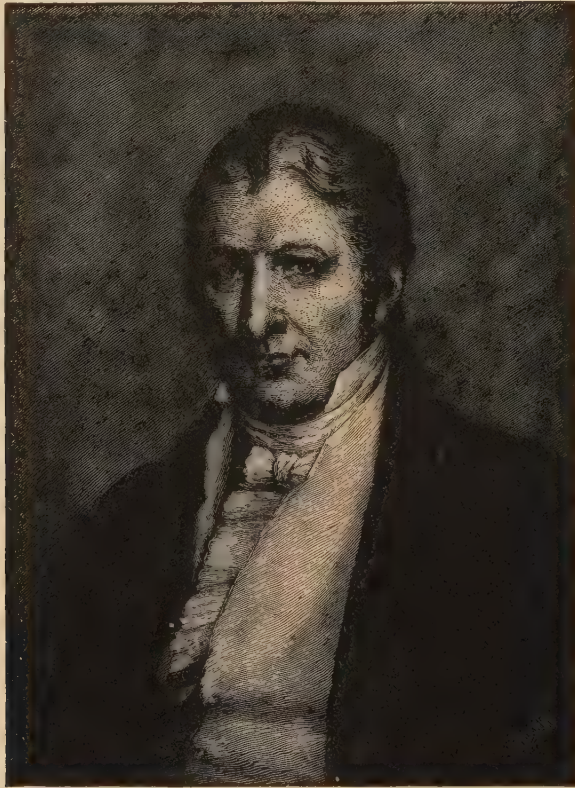
Financ-
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The
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Debts
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The
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States
Bank

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ing money, the equally important work remained of providing a way to earn the interest. In his report to Congress, Hamilton recommended a protective tariff, but advised that the materials from which goods are manufactured should not be taxed, while such articles as competed with those made in this country should be prohibited. A bill embodying these features became a law, February 9, 1792, pre-



ELI WHITNEY

A Pro-
tective
Tariff

vious to which a law had been made which placed an import duty upon imported, and an excise duty upon domestic, spirits. A mint was also established in Philadelphia for the coining of money* and a postal system was adopted the same year.

During the first session of Congress steps were also taken for the

*The earliest coinage in this country was minted at Boston in 1652. It consisted of shillings and of six and three cent pieces, and was in use for thirty-four years.

formation of a Federal judiciary. The bill which finally passed created a national judiciary, consisting of a Supreme Court having a chief-justice and five associate-justices, who were to hold two sessions annually at the seat of the Federal government. Circuit and district courts were given jurisdiction over certain cases. Each State was made a district, and the Territories of Maine and Kentucky were provided for in the same manner. The remaining Territories were grouped together in three circuits. In every civil case when the question in dispute involved a sum amounting to \$2,000, an appeal as to points of law was allowed from the lower courts to the Supreme Court. The President was to appoint a marshal for each district, whose powers were those of a sheriff. A district-attorney represented the interests of the government and was to act for the United States whenever necessary. The first chief-justice was John Jay, of New York, and Edmund Randolph, of Virginia, was appointed attorney-general. The associate-judges were: John Rutledge, of South Carolina; James Wilson, of Pennsylvania; William Cushing, of Massachusetts; Robert H. Harrison, of Maryland; and John Blair, of Virginia.

Vermont, first known as the New Hampshire Grants, had disputed for years with New York over the boundaries, and the dispute was in existence when it was interrupted for a time by the breaking out of the Revolution. The people of Vermont in 1777 declared themselves an independent State, and in 1781 Congress offered to admit the claim, but with such a curtailment of the territorial area that the

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The
Federal
Judiciary

Vermont
and
Ken-
tucky
Admitted

From 1778 to 1787, the Congress of the Confederation claimed the sole right to regulate the alloy and value of the coin struck by the States. In June, 1785, Vermont granted to Reuben Harmon, Jr., the right to coin copper money for the State, and Connecticut did likewise in the following October. All these coins were made of copper. In June, 1786, New Jersey granted similar rights, and on October 17, 1786, Massachusetts established a mint and coined cents and half-cents. The earliest coins struck by the United States are known as "Fugios," because of one of the words on one side. The mint was established April 2, 1792, at Philadelphia, and all coinage previous to 1835 was minted there. By the act of March 3, of that year, branch mints were established at Charlotte, N. C., Dahlonega, Ga., and New Orleans. A branch mint was established in San Francisco in 1852, at Denver 1862, and Carson, Nev., 1863. In 1873, the Denver and Charlotte mints were changed into assay offices. The coinage act of 1792 established the silver dollar as a unit. The coinage of silver dollars, though commenced in 1794, amounted, down to the year 1840, to but \$1,501,822, having been wholly suspended for thirty years, originally in 1806, by executive order. The silver dollars coined in 1804 were so few that in later days they were worth one thousand dollars and more apiece. The system of coinage adopted in 1785 was recommended by Jefferson.

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people refused. Finally, New York proposed to give up all claim to the territory on the payment by Vermont of \$30,000. This was agreed to, and March 4, 1791, Vermont was admitted as the fourteenth State of the Union. The leading facts in the early history of the "Green Mountain State" already have been given. Its popular name comes from its principal range of mountains, *verd*, green, and



THE COTTON GIN

mont, mountain. The next State to be admitted was Kentucky, June 1, 1792. We have already learned that it had been a part of Virginia, a citizen of which gave the first account of it in 1758. It was visited and settled by Daniel Boone, in 1769. Other settlers followed, and, in 1775, put up log-cabins and block-houses at Boonesborough and at Harrodsburg. Numerous and desperate fights with the Indians took place, and the territory in consequence gained the name of the "Dark and Bloody Ground." Louisville was founded in 1778, Lexington in 1779, and Maysville in 1784. The rich soil and fine climate of Kentucky early attracted settlers, and it rapidly

First
Settle-
ments in
Ken-
tucky

increased in population. Virginia consented that it should become a separate State shortly before its admission to the Union. The origin of its name is uncertain.

During Washington's first term, a law student named Eli Whitney, a native of Massachusetts, and a graduate of Yale College, was boarding at Savannah, Georgia, with the widow of General Nathaniel Greene, who had died some years before from sunstroke. At that time there was little cotton raised in the South, for, though the soil and climate were highly favorable, it was very hard to separate the fibre from the seed. A negro had to keep at work all day to clean a pound of cotton, at which rate there was no money to be made from its culture. Mrs. Greene asked Whitney to try to make a machine that would do this work. The young man, after much labor and difficulty, produced the "cotton-gin," one of the most important inventions in its results that has ever been made in this country. The machine was completed in 1793, and wrought a revolution in the South. A single Whitney gin did the work of more than a thousand men. The production of cotton quickly became a leading industry in that section, and added millions of dollars to the wealth of the inhabitants. Four-fifths of the cotton used in England in later years came from this country, which produced annually billions of pounds' weight of the useful fibre.

The first national census was taken in 1791, the result of which has already been given. Just before Congress adjourned, in September, it requested the President to recommend a day of public thanksgiving and prayer, for the whole nation, in acknowledgment of the signal favor of the Almighty in permitting them to establish a free government. The President appointed Thursday, November 26, 1790. It was generally observed and was the first national religious holiday in our history. After discussion, it was decided that the permanent location of the seat of the national government should be at the head of water navigation on the Potomac river, within a territory ten miles square, lying on each side of the river, ceded by Maryland and Virginia, and named the District of Columbia, in honor of the discoverer of America. It was to become the seat of government at the end of ten years, during which period the capital should be Philadelphia, New York ceasing to have that honor after the year 1790.

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Inven-
tion of
the
Cotton
Gin

The
Great
Work of
the
Cotton
Gin

Changes
in the
Seat of
Govern-
ment



THE BATTLE OF FALLEN TIMBERS

From the Original Drawing by J. Steeple Davis



CHAPTER III

WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION,—SECOND TERM, 1793-1797

[*Author's Note:* To the troubles of Washington's administration, incident to the organization of the machinery of government and the settlement of financial questions, were added frontier disturbances with the Indians, and economic issues arising out of an unpopular excise law. More serious than these, however, were the complications of parties, which thus early began to vex the young Republic, and the embroilment with both France and England—the sequel in part of the French Revolution, and the bias of political factions in the United States in favor of one or the other of the two belligerent nations. Despite these ruffings of the political waters of the country, the national bark continued to make headway, while the energies of the people awoke to new life. Three new States, meanwhile, were added to the Union, which reinvigorated its powers, and gave an impetus to the opening up of the country and to improved facilities of communication, quickened by the appliance of steam-power. The period closes with Washington's farewell address, and the election of a new President. To supplement the contents of this chapter, the reader is recommended to consult the authorities named at the head of the previous one, together with Lecky's and Green's "England"; and Schouler's "History of the United States under the Constitution"; and Pellew's "John Jay," in the "American Statesmen" Series.]



TWO distinct political parties assumed form during Washington's first term of office. They were the Federalists and the Republicans. Each desired good government; but the Federalists claimed that the right way to secure that boon was through the Federal government. The Republicans were equally convinced that the surest agency was that of the States. The Federalists wished to give the

Federal government as much, and the Republicans as little, power as possible. The Democrats of later days were the successors of the

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Republicans of the earlier years. Hamilton and Knox were the Federal leaders, while Jefferson and Randolph were the most prominent Republicans. The Republicans were not strong enough in 1792 to contest the election for President, whose period of office had expired, and once more all the electors voted for Washington, while John Adams, also a Federalist, received the next largest vote and was re-elected Vice-President. Think of a President of the United States being twice chosen unanimously to the exalted office, and urged to accept it a third time! But did not Washington deserve the honor?

The second inauguration of Washington took place in Philadelphia, March 4, 1793. He was again the same grand figure that had first



MARTHA WASHINGTON

stood before the two branches of Congress. He took upon himself, for the second time, the vows of his high office. Congress was meantime sitting in Federal Hall, at the corner of Fifth and Chestnut streets, Philadelphia. The occasion was made a general holiday, and the streets were crowded with happy people. Washington, at his second inauguration, wore a suit of black velvet, with black silk stockings, and diamond knee-buckles. His japanned shoes were clasped with large silver buckles. His hair powdered, as was the fashion of the day, was gathered in a black

silk bag, and tied with a bow of black ribbon. He wore a light dress sword, with green shagreen scabbard, and the hilt richly ornamented. His costume was much more elegant than on the occasion of the first inaugural ceremonies. Indeed, he was one of the best dressed men in the country, but it was not from personal vanity, but out of respect for his exalted station.

Wash-
ington's
Second
Inaugu-
ration

On this occasion there was no formal procession. He was driven to the hall in a superb coach, drawn by six white horses, two gentlemen in full dress preceding the carriage. They carried in their hands long white wands, and the crowds parted respectfully before them, leaving a way for the slow-moving carriage. When the President entered the hall of the Senate, where both houses had assembled, all rose and made obeisance and remained standing until he had ascended the dais to the Speaker's seat at the further end. Thomas

Jefferson stood at his side, wearing a blue coat, single-breasted, with large plain brass buttons, his vest and small-clothes being of crimson. The two men were of precisely the same height, though Jefferson was of much slighter frame than Washington. Chief Justice Cushing administered the oath. Then Washington drew from his breast a roll of manuscript containing his inaugural address. He showed none of the embarrassment which marked the delivery of his address at his first installation, and he laid the paper on the table as soon as he had finished reading it. A few minutes later, he withdrew from the chamber, all standing as before until he had quitted the building. Then the clerk of the House took up the paper and read the address again to the joint Assembly.

There were important interests extending from the first term of Washington into the second. After the organization of the Northwest Territory, in 1787, an increasing stream of immigrants poured into the Ohio region. General Arthur St. Clair, a former Continental officer, was made the first governor, and he soon found serious trouble on his hands. England was still sullen towards our country, and, in violation of the terms of the treaty of 1783, she retained possession of Detroit and other western posts. British agents incited the Indians to murder the settlers, and in 1790 the tribes were in open war and refused to make peace with the Americans. General Harmar, in September, 1790, set out with more than a thousand troops, regulars and volunteers, from Fort Washington—now Cincinnati—to invade the Indian country around the sources of the Maumee and punish the red men for their outrages. Harmar had a force strong enough to strike as crushing a blow as did Sullivan in 1779, but he was badly defeated in two engagements and abandoned the enterprise. Some successes were, however, made in the following year, by General Scott, of Kentucky, and by General Wilkinson, but they served only to excite the Indians to further atrocities.

Resolved to bring the savages to terms, two thousand troops marched northward from Fort Washington, in September, 1791, with General St. Clair in command. Their purpose was to plant military posts in the Indian country. Fort Hamilton was erected, twenty miles from Fort Washington, on the Miami river, while forty miles farther was built Fort Jefferson. A hundred miles from their starting-point, the soldiers went into camp, on a tributary of the Upper

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Settle-
ment
of Ohio

Defeat of
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Harmar

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Defeat of
General
St. Clair

Wabash, near the Indiana line. Just before daylight, November 4, they were furiously attacked by a large force of Indians. The troops fought bravely, but were unfortunately routed with great loss. General Butler, who was in immediate command, was killed, as were most of the other officers. St. Clair, after having three horses shot under him, managed to save his life by lashing a mule, upon which he leaped, into a gallop when he saw that his army was defeated. The disaster spread dismay along the frontier. When the news reached Washington, the President was thrown into a towering rage. It took great provocation thus to stir the depths of his nature, but he had warned St. Clair against making the very blunder he had committed. Washington walked up and down the room, bewailing the loss of life and denouncing St. Clair for having disobeyed him and brought sorrow to so many homes. By and by the great man became calmer, and remarked to his secretary that St. Clair should have justice done him. He would not condemn him until he had heard his defense.

Appoint-
ment of
General
Wayne
to suc-
ceed
St. Clair

St. Clair, meanwhile, was so crippled with the gout that he could hardly walk. Some weeks later, however, he hobbled into the room and Washington offered him his hand. St. Clair grasped it in both of his and received such a kind welcome that he sobbed like a child. It was evident that a more successful soldier must be sent against the Indians. Washington did not blunder when he appointed Anthony Wayne to succeed St. Clair in the military command. Negotiations had the while been going on with the savages, but they ended in failure, and Wayne knew that the outrages would be renewed. He entered the Indian country in the autumn of 1793, with a strong military force. He spent the winter at Greenville, near the scene of St. Clair's defeat, and there built a stockade. When summer came, he advanced to the Maumee river and erected Fort Defiance, at the junction of that stream and the Au Glaize. Another was built on the St. Mary's, and, in August, he marched down the Maumee with three thousand troops and encamped near Fort Miami, a British military post at the foot of the Maumee rapids.

Although General Wayne is often called "Mad Anthony," there was no madness or even excess of rashness about him. He was one of the bravest of men, and never shirked danger. Washington had unbounded confidence in the officer, for he knew him thoroughly, while Wayne showed his faith in Washington by once telling him,

when a desperate scheme was under consideration, that he would lead a charge into the lower regions if Washington would only plan the campaign.

There was no danger of Wayne repeating the mistake of his predecessors. He advanced carefully and with so much precaution that the crafty Indians could not surprise him. He offered them peace if they would bury the hatchet. True to their treacherous nature, they tried to gain time. "Wait where you are for ten days," they answered, "and we shall treat with you, but if you advance we shall destroy you."

Disregarding this menace, Wayne advanced to the head of the Maumee rapids, and a decisive battle took place at Fallen Timbers, August 20, 1794. The savages were routed with great loss, and Wayne gave the sympathizing British officers at the nearest post notice that, if they would offer him a suitable pretext, he would serve them in the same manner. They did not accept the challenge. Wayne laid waste the Indian country, and again went into winter quarters at Greenville. The Indians were so humbled that, in the following summer, nearly twelve hundred warriors and their sachems, representing twelve tribes, met commissioners of the United States at Greenville and ceded to our government 25,000 square miles of territory in the present states of Michigan and Indiana, in addition to sixteen separate tracts including lands and forts. In payment for these cessions, the Indians participating received \$20,000 worth of presents, and were promised an annual allowance of \$10,000. A special treaty was made with Great Britain about this time, by which the military posts in the West were soon evacuated. There was not much further trouble with the Indians until the year before the breaking out of the War of 1812.

An appalling revolution began in France in 1789. The people were trampled upon and treated like brutes, until they broke into desperate revolt and committed excesses which horrified the world. Thousands of nobles and others were killed, for no other reason than that they were of gentle birth. The country was drenched with blood and the frenzy of insanity prevailed. Jefferson was in France when the uprising took place and sympathized with it, for it seemed, in its purpose, like our own Revolution. He felt very friendly, and when he came back to America, to enter the Cabinet, he hoped that our country would give aid to the revolutionists. But Washington

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Indian
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was wiser than he, and discreetly resolved that our government should not become entangled with any foreign one. Many of our people seemed to lose their senses in the madness over the French uprising, and clamored that we should aid the French in their warfare against monarchy. "Citizen Genêt" (*zhēh-nā'*), an ambassador to our government from the French Republic, arrived in Charleston, South Carolina, in April, 1793. Washington, who was anxiously watching the trend of events, issued a proclamation of neutrality a few days later, warning all citizens against helping to kindle war in Europe. The friends of France were much angered because of this, and heaped abuse upon the President.

"Citizen
Genêt"

Genêt did not wait to present his credentials to our government, but began to enlist men in the service of the French Republic. He was furnished with blank commissions, and set to work to fit out privateers to attack the commerce of England, Spain, and Holland. One of these brought a prize into Philadelphia, before Genêt himself reached that city. The Frenchman was received with great enthusiasm, and was thus encouraged in his disregard of our government's wishes. He sought to create a breach between it and the people, and at one time seemed likely to do so. It was another of those great crises in which Washington preserved his superb poise and guided the Ship of State past the rocks that threatened her. He requested the French Republic to recall Genêt, and, since such a request is never unheeded, Genêt was notified to return home. At the same time, the French government expressed its regrets at their ambassador's imprudent course and sent an acceptable minister to replace him. Genêt knew that if he went back to France his neck would be placed under the guillotine, so he wisely stayed in this country. He married a daughter of Governor Clinton, and was a loyal and respected citizen when he died, in 1834.

Recall
of Genêt

It has been stated that one of the laws passed by Congress imposed a tax upon whiskey. The roads in this country were so bad at certain seasons as to be almost impassable. In the western part of Pennsylvania and Virginia, it cost more to haul the grain to market than it could be sold for. So the farmers turned it into whiskey, which occupied less bulk and was more readily carried. They resented the levying of the new tax and spitefully used the officers who were sent to collect it. The insurrection spread throughout the Pittsburgh region, and many outrages were committed. At one time

fully six thousand insurgents were under arms, and, as is often the case, the local militia were the friends of the mob.

The insurrection grew to alarming proportions. Albert Gallatin, afterwards Secretary of the Treasury, acted as secretary at a convention of the insurgents at Pittsburgh, and helped to organize the rebellion. It was estimated that the insurgent counties could raise sixteen thousand fighting men, and Judge Brackenridge hinted that if the general government should attempt force, those in revolt might ask aid from Great Britain, or even march on Philadelphia itself. This was blatant treason, and Washington was not the one to trifle with the insurgent spirit. He exhausted peaceable means, but would not listen to the pacific measures proposed by the leaders around him. He ordered out a large body of militia from Virginia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey, and sent them, under the command of "Light-Horse Harry" Lee, to the rebellious district. The mutineers were overawed. They did not expect a hostile act on the part of the government. They began to talk matters over among themselves, and it was not necessary for General Lee to order a shot fired. The rebellion subsided and was heard of no more. Again the wise firmness and wisdom of Washington saved the nation from a grave peril.

The course of Great Britain in holding the western military posts, in violation of the treaty of 1783, will be remembered. Her excuse was that our agreement regarding the property of the so-called Tories had not been kept, and we would not pay the debts contracted before the Revolution. The friction became so great that Washington proposed to send a special envoy to the British court, to arrange for a settlement of the disputes. In conformity with the President's wish, Congress, on the 19th of April, 1794, commissioned John Jay to undertake the delicate mission. He returned with a treaty which provided for the collection of debts here by British creditors, but furnished no indemnity for the slaves stolen by the English. It also guaranteed the evacuation of the western posts and payment for unlawful captures on the high seas. The treaty was not what we wanted, but it was the best that could be secured, and averted a new war with England. It, however, awoke bitter hostility against the administration, and Jay was burnt in effigy, but the treaty was ratified June 24, 1795.

In October following a treaty was made with Spain, which defined

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The
"Whiskey
Rebel-
lion"

Jay's
Treaty

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lence of
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A Strik-
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Incident

Admis-
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Tennes-
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the boundaries between the Spanish territories of Louisiana and Florida, and secured to us the free navigation of the Mississippi and the use of the port of New Orleans for a period of ten years.

There occurred a series of incidents a hundred and more years ago, which is anything but a pleasant memory now to Americans. Think of a little nest of barbarians away off in Algiers, compelling the United States to pay them tribute, under the threat that, if we refused they would not allow our commerce to enter the Mediterranean, but would make prisoners and slaves of all our sailors who dared to enter that inland European sea! It was humiliating; but the explanation lies in the fact that, as has been stated, we had not a single ship in our navy, and it was cheaper to pay tribute than to fight. We then weren't ready, but the day was to come when those insolent Algerines were to be taught a lesson. On the 25th of July, 1785, an Algerine cruiser captured the ship *Maria*, of Boston, near the straits of Gibraltar, and made slaves of the crew. A few days later, the *Dauphin*, of Philadelphia, and the *Minerva*, of New York, were taken, so that over a hundred American citizens were huddled in the slave-pens of Algiers. Here is an extract from a newspaper, which records the sailing of the frigate *Crescent*, January 20, 1798, from Portsmouth, New Hampshire: "She is one of the finest specimens of naval architecture which was ever borne on the Piscataqua's waters, and is a present from the United States to the Dey of Algiers, as a compensation for delay in fulfilling our treaty stipulations. The *Crescent* has many valuable presents on board for the Dey, and when she sailed was supposed to be worth at least \$300,000. Twenty-six barrels of dollars constituted a part of her cargo. It is worthy of remark that the captain, the chief of the officers, and many of the privates of the *Crescent* frigate have been prisoners in Algiers." The United States paid about a million dollars for the ransom of American captives held by the Dey of Algiers. From 1785 until 1793, those pirates captured fifteen American vessels, and made 180 officers and sailors their slaves, treating them with the greatest cruelty. In 1795, the United States made a treaty with Algiers by which it agreed to pay an annual tribute to the Dey for the relief of captured seamen. In doing this, it may be said that we only imitated the current action of the leading nations in Europe.

Tennessee was admitted to the Union, June 1, 1796. We have shown that it had been a part of North Carolina. A fort was built

by the British in 1756, named Loudon, upon the present site of Knoxville, and a few pioneers clustered round it. After the State of Franklin was dissolved, North Carolina ceded Tennessee to the United States, and it was formed into the Southwest Territory. The state is divided into three parts by the Tennessee river, and the Cumberland mountains which cross it. The chief cities are Nashville, the capital, in middle Tennessee; Memphis, in western Tennessee; and Chattanooga, in eastern Tennessee. Its name is derived from the river Tennessee, meaning the "river with the great bend."

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Although those were trying times, the country was meanwhile becoming strong, and was laying the foundations of a solid prosperity. Government was more powerful and secure, and commerce was extending. The Stars and Stripes floated beside the flags of other nations in foreign ports, and by many sea-going Americans was patriotically deemed, and rightly so, the most beautiful of them all. In 1790, the Boston ship *Columbia* made the first American voyage around the world.

Substan-
tial
Progress

Our forefathers early proved that they were of an inventive turn by beginning to take out patents; there were manufactures, too, in various parts of the country. The mint, in 1793, sent out more than 10,000 copper cents, which were the first federal coins made by the government. Two years later, the first gold pieces appeared. Several of the chief cities laid turnpike roads for some distance out into the country, charging toll, so as to repay the expense. Two short canals also were dug in New England.

One of the most interesting attempts at improved navigation was that of John Fitch to build steamboats. His jewelry store in Trenton was destroyed by the Hessians, because he gave help to the patriots in repairing their weapons. He traveled in the west, and was held captive for a long time by the Indians. He was an ingenious man, and, on his return, set to work to form a company to help him construct a steamboat at Philadelphia. He succeeded in building one, which ran five or six miles an hour, and ascended the Delaware, as far as Burlington, some say to Trenton. It was a crude affair, however, and is generally referred to as a failure, but it led the way to Fulton's success later. The first newspaper in the northwest was published in Cincinnati, in 1793, when the town consisted of about a hundred log-cabins. It seems strange to read that when two large passenger-boats began running between Pittsburgh and Cincin-

John
Fitch's
Steam-
boat

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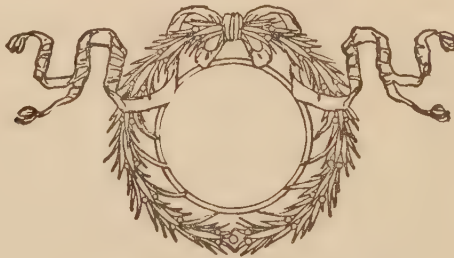
nati, in 1794, they were moved with oars, had bullet-proof sides, and carried several cannon to protect them from the Indians.

As Washington's second term drew to a close there were many, including Vice-President Adams, who begged him to serve for a third term. But he would not consent. He felt that his health was becoming impaired, and his almost ruined estates demanded his attention. He issued his farewell address to the people of the United States, September 17, 1796. This admirable, and now historic, paper is so full of wisdom and sound statesmanship that it should be studied and remembered by every American. It is a priceless gift to the nation which the great man loved and served so well.

Election
of John
Adams

Now that Presidential candidates had to be sought elsewhere, the contest became a bitter wrangle. In fact, it closely resembled the Presidential elections of later times. The Federalists supported John Adams, while the Republicans were in favor of Thomas Jefferson. Some prominent Federalists in the northern and eastern states favored Hamilton, and a few desired John Jay; but the majority clung to Adams. In the hope of dividing the Federalist vote, Thomas Pinckney, of South Carolina, was put forward. Hamilton has been credited with the suggestion, but it came to naught. It required seventy votes to elect, and Adams received seventy-one, while Jefferson received but three votes fewer. Adams, therefore, became President, and Jefferson Vice-President, the latter's politics being the opposite of the President's.*

*The Constitution provided that any man who was a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of the Constitution, was eligible to the Presidency. Consequently, Alexander Hamilton, who was a native of the West Indies, and who had a strong following, was eligible, and there is reason for believing that the provision named was incorporated in the Constitution for the purpose of bestowing such eligibility upon him.

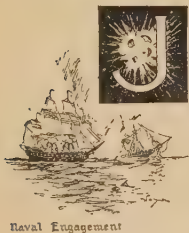




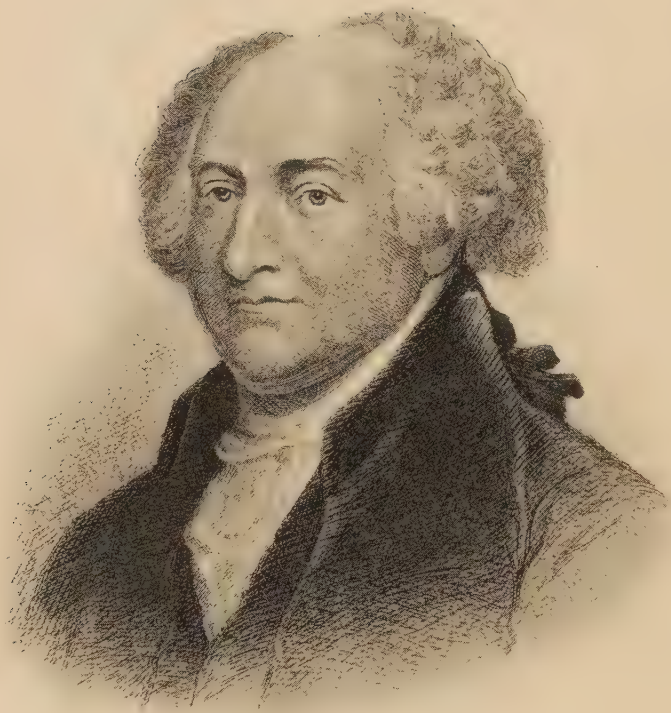
CHAPTER IV

JOHN ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION—1797-1801

[*Author's Note:* The administration of the second incumbent of the Presidential office was not a tranquil one, nor, in its effects upon Mr. Adams himself, can it be said to have conduced to happiness. Though the nominee of the Federalists, he gave mortal offense to that now historic party, in the pacific relations of his Government with France (which during the Directorate had become obnoxious to the country), and the opposing of which involved the party in much obloquy, from which it never recovered. He was also unfortunate in standing sponsor for the unpopular Alien and Sedition laws, though probably with the best intent, for his character was good, though his temper was at times evil. His patriotism no one could question, and great had been his services to the country. The action of the French Directory incited war preparations, and made necessary even an appeal to the nation's retired commander-in-chief. Happily Bonaparte's coming on the scene changed the aspect of affairs, and the illustrious Washington, instead of buckling on his armor again, gathered up his loins for his last sleep. The peace of 1801 followed fitly upon the close of the national hero's career. The authorities for the period, in addition to the notable histories, including McMaster's "History of the People of the United States," are Hamilton's "The Federalist"; the Works of John Adams; Morse's Memoirs of Adams and Jefferson; Pellew's "John Jay"; and Gay's "Madison" (American Statesmen Series).]



JOHAN ADAMS, the second President, was born at Braintree, Mass., October 19, 1735. At the age of twenty he was graduated from Harvard college, and three years later was admitted to the bar. He was one of the most active and influential members of the first and second Continental Congresses, where he did more than any other man to crystallize the American sentiment for independence. While Jefferson wrote the Declaration, Adams was its ablest advocate, and really brought about its adoption. It was he who suggested the



John Adams

appointment of Washington as commander-in-chief of the Continental armies. He was afterwards a severe critic of Washington, but was manly enough ere long to admit his mistake in that respect.

Adams was a man of prodigious activity in Congress during the Revolution. He was a member of ninety committees and chairman of twenty-five. As commissioner to France and Holland, he accomplished important results, and he served as minister-plenipotentiary while negotiating a treaty with Great Britain. Large loans were raised through his influence, and he secured many excellent treaties with foreign powers. The preliminary treaty of Versailles was framed by him in association with Franklin, and he was the first American minister to England, serving at the Court of St. James until 1788. He received the thanks of Congress for the "patriotism, perseverance and diligence" which marked his career abroad.

The inauguration of John Adams was the last to take place in Philadelphia, where he was installed in the House of Representatives, which was so packed that many had to sit on the floor. When the Senate entered the chamber, the President-elect led the procession and Washington was the guest of honor. The latter had taken but a few steps into the room when a burst of applause came from every part of the house, Adams meeting with the same generous reception. The President-elect delivered his inaugural, and the oath was administered by Chief Justice Oliver Ellsworth. A few minutes afterwards, Adams, Vice-President Jefferson, and Washington retired amid great cheering and a discharge of artillery. There was a general illumination in the evening, but no procession. A large number of callers were received informally at the President's house, and Washington held a popular levee, to which hundreds flocked for the honor of pressing his hand.

The administration of Washington dovetails into that of Adams. Both were Federalists, and the Cabinet of the first President was accepted at once in its entirety by the second. The difference lay in the chiefs themselves, but what a difference! Both were men of eminent ability, but Adams was irascible, obdurate, and lacking in the serene self-command of Washington. He seemed always to have a dispute or some quarrel on hand. When he failed of re-election, he showed his resentment by the childish act of leaving the city of Washington early in the morning, so as not to be present at the inauguration of his successor.

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Troubles
with
France

One of the legacies of Washington's administration was the trouble with France, which really began before Adams assumed the duties of his office. Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, our new minister, had been ordered out of the country by the Directory, as the then governing body of France was termed. This insult was accompanied by a notice that no other minister would be received until we met the demands of the French Republic. At the same time, orders were issued for the French marine to seize American vessels. There were several reasons for this course of the French Directory, which was composed of five persons, who were made rulers in 1795. They were angry because of the treaty made with Great Britain, and also on account of the failure to elect Jefferson, who was regarded as a strong friend of France. So they thought to punish the United States for daring to act contrary to their wishes. The decree, which was issued in May, 1797, declared that any American found on board a hostile ship, even if placed there by impressment, should be hanged as a pirate. Now, since England was even at that time enforcing her alleged "right of search," by which she took from any American vessel she might overhaul such seamen as she claimed belonged to England (and she held in this arbitrary manner many who were Americans), it will be seen that our poor sailors were placed in a sad situation.

President Adams convened Congress in extraordinary session May 15, 1797. Its earliest enactment was to provide for calling out eighty thousand militia and the creating of a small naval force; but Congress seemed to believe that the troubles might be adjusted without war, so John Marshall, afterward Chief-Justice of the United States, and Elbridge Gerry were appointed commissioners to join Pinckney in the effort to settle the dispute by diplomacy. They reached France in October, 1797, and sought an audience with the French Directory. They were informed that no hearing would be granted unless they agreed to loan France a large sum of money, and to pay a bribe of \$240,000 to the five members of the Directory. This insulting proposal was accompanied by a hint that, if it was not accepted, the envoys would be ordered to leave the country within twenty-four hours, and our coasts would be ravaged by French cruisers sent from San Domingo. "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute!" answered Pinckney, and the envoys took their departure, Gerry remaining, however, some time after his compan-

"Millions
for
Defense,
but Not
One Cent
for
Tribute"



From the Original Drawing by Chas. Kendrick

"I AM READY FOR ANY SERVICE THAT I CAN GIVE MY COUNTRY"

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First
Secretary
of the
Navy

ions had left. The insolent Directory soon issued another decree, which virtually annihilated our commerce in European waters. The Americans were roused by these repeated aggressions and demanded that war should be declared against France. In his first annual message to Congress, November 23, 1797, President Adams recommended preparations for hostilities, and, in March following, he asked Congress to provide the sinews of war. The request was promptly granted. A provisional army, composed of twenty thousand regular soldiers, was empowered to be raised, and arrangements were made to call the militia and volunteers into service. The mistake of not rebuilding a navy was by this time fully seen, and steps were taken to provide an effective naval force. The office of Secretary of the Navy was created, and, on the 30th of April, 1798, Benjamin Stoddart, of Georgetown, D. C., as such officer, was added to the President's Cabinet.

Wash-
ington's
Patriot-
ism

A navy of twenty-four vessels was ordered, and our merchantmen were authorized to arm themselves against the French vessels-of-war. Washington was appointed commander-in-chief of all the forces raised, with the commission of lieutenant-general. He was in the fields, at Mount Vernon, where his men were gathering his grain harvest, when the Secretary of War arrived in person and handed the commission to him. Washington looked it over, and, as he saw its significance, his eyes flashed and he said: "I am ready for any service that I can give my country." He asked the President not to call him to active duty until necessary, and wished his friend Alexander Hamilton to be the acting general-in-chief. This request was granted, and Hamilton was commissioned the first major-general. Washington met the general officers in conference at Philadelphia and arranged for the organization of the military forces. At the same time, he expressed his belief that the clouds of war would soon disappear.

Philadelphia was visited by the scourge of yellow fever in the summer of 1798. New York and other seaboard cities also suffered. Congress in consequence adjourned to Trenton, but many of its members were absent, and President Adams was kept a long time at his home in Quincy, Mass., by the serious illness of his wife. The war spirit, however, intensified, and though war did not take place on land, there was fighting on the ocean.

It was during these exciting days that Congress passed the "Alien

and Sedition laws.” Some of the most vicious writers for the contemporary press were foreign adventurers. They were enemies of our institutions, and became so obnoxious that, by these new acts, approved June 18, 1798, the President was authorized to send out of the country such aliens or foreigners as he deemed dangerous to its welfare, or, in case they remained, they were to give bonds for their good behavior. The laws made it a penal offense for anyone to defame Congress or the President, to rouse the hatred of the people against them, or to stir up sedition in the United States.

These laws provoked much indignation throughout the country. They were considered an attack on the liberty of the press and the utterance of free speech. The legislatures of Virginia and Kentucky declared that Congress had no right to make such laws, and affirmed that the states should not obey them. The resolutions came from the pen of Vice-President Jefferson, and were sent to other legislatures. One of the dearest rights of an American citizen was that of saying what he thought about the government, and he would not consent then nor would he consent now, to have the right taken from him. The laws were very unpopular, and resulted in the defeat of the Federalists at the next election, and they never regained control of the government.

On November 16, 1798, the United States war-ship *Baltimore*, while convoying merchant vessels from Charleston to Havana, was hailed and brought to by a British squadron, which, despite the protests of the captain, carried fifty-five seamen on board the British flagship, in order that the British commander might select the best. Five of the seamen were impressed into the English service, and after seizing three vessels of the American convoy, the British commander continued his cruise. Captain Phillips was dismissed from the service because of his tame submission to the outrage.

In July, 1800, the French man-of-war *Flambeau* mistook the American 12-gun schooner *Enterprise* for a merchantman and attacked her. The Frenchman found out his mistake when, after severe loss at the end of forty minutes, he was compelled to surrender.

Awake to the necessity of increasing the strength of the navy, Congress in 1799 added several new vessels. The *Constellation*, Commodore Truxtun, captured the French frigate *L'Insurgente* (*lan serjänt*) of 44 guns and 409 men. This brilliant victory, which

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Increase
of the
American
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was gained in the West Indies in February, 1799, compelled the praise of England as well as Truxtun's own country. The merchants of London presented him with a superb service of silver plate. In the following year, Truxtun defeated the French frigate *La Vengeance*, of 54 guns and 500 men, off Guadaloupe, for which exploit Congress presented the gallant commodore with a gold medal.



MOUNT VERNON

Fighting
on the
Ocean

In October of the same year the United States 36-gun frigate *Boston*, after a two days' pursuit of and fight with the French corvette *Berceau* (*ber-so'*), forced her to surrender. Indeed, the Frenchmen were no match for the Americans. When France, by its policy of folly, was on the verge of ruin, Napoleon Bonaparte came to the throne and speedily offered a treaty of peace, which was ratified by the Senate, February 3, 1801. During these difficulties, the Americans had few privateers, most of the captures being made by government cruisers.

Fatal
Illness of
Wash-
ington

On the 13th of December, 1799, Washington rashly exposed himself to a severe storm of sleet and rain. He awoke in the night with a distressing attack of membranous croup. In later days his illness would probably have been called pneumonia, though that name was hardly ever heard at that time, lung fever being the term. His condition became alarming, and at daylight Dr. Craik, the

family physician, was sent for. Two other doctors arrived in the course of the day, and nothing that could be done to relieve the sufferer was neglected.

Mr. Lear, Washington's secretary, afterwards wrote of the dying hero whom the nation loved and loves:

"About ten minutes before he expired, his breathing became easier. (It was between ten and eleven o'clock at night.) He lay quietly; he withdrew his hand from mine and felt his own pulse. I saw his countenance change. I spoke to Dr. Craik, who sat by the fire. He came to the bedside. The General's hand fell from his wrist. I took it in mine and pressed it to my bosom. Dr. Craik put his hand over his eyes, and he (Washington) expired without a struggle or a sigh. While we were fixed in silent grief, Mrs. Washington, who was sitting at the foot of the bed, asked with a firm and collected voice, 'Is he gone?' I could not speak, but held up my hand as a signal that he was no more. 'Tis well,' she said, in the same voice; 'all's now over; I shall soon follow him; I have no more trials to pass through.'"

The body was buried December 18, having been kept three days, as requested by Washington. A schooner lying off Alexandria fired minute-guns while the funeral procession was moving from the house to the vault. The way was led by the troops, horse and foot, followed by four clergymen; then came Washington's horse, with saddle, holsters, and pistols, led by two grooms in black; then the bier, borne by the Masonic order of which he was a member and one of its officers, the family and friends, and finally the corporation of Alexandria. Reverend Mr. Davis read the service at the tomb and spoke a few words, after which the body was placed in the vault with Masonic ceremonies. Washington died in his sixty-seventh year. In 1837, the remains were removed to their present resting-place at Mount Vernon.

The grief over the death of Washington was universal. There was not a town or village in which memorial services were not held. Congress, to whom the news had been borne by special messenger, went in funeral procession to the German Lutheran church. The Speaker's chair was draped in black, and the members wore mourning for the remainder of the session. The resolutions offered in the House enshrine those words, repeated so often since: "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen." Gen-

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The
Last
Scene

Funeral
Cere-
monies

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eral Henry Lee, the intimate friend of Washington from boyhood (and the father of General Robert E. Lee, leader of the Confederate armies), was the author of the words, though owing to his being called away, they were spoken by John Marshall.*

It has already been said that Napoleon Bonaparte was among those abroad who offered their tribute to the grandest and most heroic figure in history. February 9, 1800, he issued the following order to his army:

A Grand
Charac-
ter

"Washington is dead! This great man fought against tyranny; he established the liberties of his country. His memory will always be dear to the French people, as it will be to all free men of the two worlds; and especially to the French soldiers, who, like him and the American soldiers, have combated for liberty and equality."

It was at Torbay that the British fleet half-masted its flags on receipt of the news. Byron expressed the sentiments of all when he declared of Washington that among warriors, statesmen and patriots, he was—

"The first, the last, the best,
The Cincinnatus of the West."

*The Gregorian calendar, which moved the estimate of time forward eleven days, took effect in Great Britain and her colonies in 1752, but it was customary for nearly a half century afterwards to continue without change the celebration of birthdays occurring previous to the official change. The stone placed at Washington's birthplace in 1815, contained the words: "Here, on the 11th of February, 1732, George Washington was born," and there was no reference to the difference between Old Style and New Style. The first recorded celebration of Washington's birthday was probably at Richmond, February 11, 1782, shortly after the great victory at Yorktown. The following year it was commemorated in Maryland, and the year after in New York. It is said that the change from the 11th to the 22d of February was made in 1793, in New York. The celebrations at first were informal, becoming more marked when he was President, though frowned upon by some of his opponents, as savoring of monarchical customs. The day was more widely honored after his death, until statutes have made the observance universal in the country.

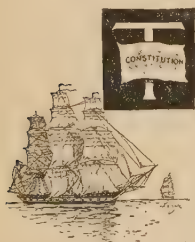




CHAPTER V

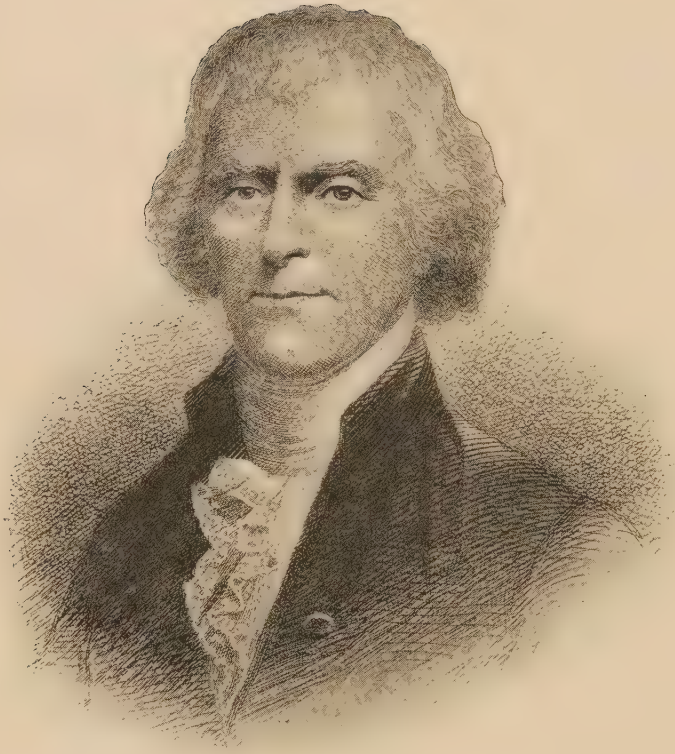
JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION,—FIRST TERM, 1801-1805

[*Author's Note:* On the now rising tide of Democracy, Jefferson, a man of great ability and much experience of the world, was borne to power and exercised, during two régimes, a very considerable influence on the political and administrative annals of the young nation. Conscious of his own strength, he was rather careless in the choice of men who were associated with him, though he was, at first, conciliatory in his attitude towards those of the now discredited Federalist party whom he had beaten in the elections. In his financial policy, he was helpfully aided by his Swiss Secretary of the Treasury, Gallatin; while the purchase of Louisiana was a tactical measure which, offsetting his schemes of retrenchment, proved gratifying to the country. His administration was further signalized by the success of the war with the Barbary States, which gave the country another thrill of pride in American naval prowess, and by the pleasing results of western exploration in the vast regions beyond the Mississippi. The Burr-Hamilton duel marks the intensity of the political passions of the era. The special authorities for the chapter are: Jefferson's Works, including his *Memoirs and Correspondence*; Morse's monograph on Jefferson; Adams' "*History of the United States during Jefferson's Administration*"; Stevens' "*Albert Gallatin*"; Parton's "*Aaron Burr*"; McMaster's "*History of the People of the United States*" (vol. iii); and Maclay's "*History of the United States Navy from 1775 to 1894.*"]



THE Presidential election of 1800 was bitterly contested. The Federalists supported John Adams and Charles Cotesworth Pinckney respectively for President and Vice-President, while the Republicans nominated Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr. The Alien and Sedition laws drove from Adams' support the twelve electoral votes of New

York. He gained in some states, but not enough to overcome the falling away of the "Empire State," as New York was after-



Th. Jefferson

wards called, because of her decisive course in the election of 1800. The count of the electoral vote, February 11, 1801, as announced in the Senate chamber, in the presence of the House of Representatives, was: Jefferson, 73; Burr, 73; Pinckney, 64; Jay, 1. There being a tie between Jefferson and Burr, the election devolved upon the House of Representatives. The House accordingly met with closed doors and began to ballot by states. On the first ballot, Jefferson received the votes of eight states, Burr six, while two were divided, which made no election. The second ballot was taken amid great excitement and with a similar result. Eight ballots in all were cast, and then a recess followed. This continued for a week, when, on the thirty-sixth ballot, Jefferson received a majority of all the votes and was declared elected President. Burr, having received the next highest number, became Vice-President.

The prolonged contest was a dangerous strain on the country, and the relief was general that it had ended without bloodshed, so much so, indeed, that cannon were fired when the issue was known in Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, and other large cities. On the last day of February, Jefferson took leave of the Senate in a few words, to prepare for his inauguration in the following week. Aaron Burr arrived the next day from Baltimore, where he had received much public attention. March 4, 1801, was the first inauguration day in the city of Washington. The present magnificent capital was then but a hamlet. The inns and other places for the accommodation of visitors were at that period so few that for a number of years the inauguration crowds had to be divided among Washington, Baltimore, Alexandria, and Georgetown. Nothing was more distasteful to Jefferson than pomp and ceremony, and, consequently, little of it marked his induction into office. About ten o'clock, the Washington artillery and a company of Alexandria riflemen paraded in front of his lodgings. The artillery fired a salute, the riflemen presented arms, and Jefferson, bowing his acknowledgments, started for the capital, accompanied by a few friends. He was dressed in plain clothing, and it is said that he rode to the Capitol and tied his own horse, but there is no record of any such incident in the newspapers of the time. The story probably arose from the fact that he left the Capitol on horseback, on the day his successor was inaugurated, and rode alone down Pennsylvania avenue. There was another artillery salute when the President-elect

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Election of Jefferson

Jefferson's
Inauguration

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Petu-
lance
of Adams

entered the Capitol. The members of the two houses rose to their feet as he came into the Senate chamber, while Burr stepped down from the presiding officer's chair, which was taken by Jefferson. The inaugural address was then delivered, after which the oath of office was administered by the Chief Justice. Jefferson afterwards returned to his lodgings, accompanied by Burr and the Chief Justice, and there held a public reception. Neither ex-President Adams nor Speaker Sedgwick, of the House of Representatives, was present at the ceremonies. Adams felt his defeat so keenly that he showed his successor no courtesies whatever. He was childish enough to declare that he was not willing "to act the rôle of captive-chief in the triumphant procession of the victor to the Capitol," and, as has been stated, he left the city early in the morning of the inauguration, and went to his home in Massachusetts. The day closed with illuminations, cannon firing, and general festivity.

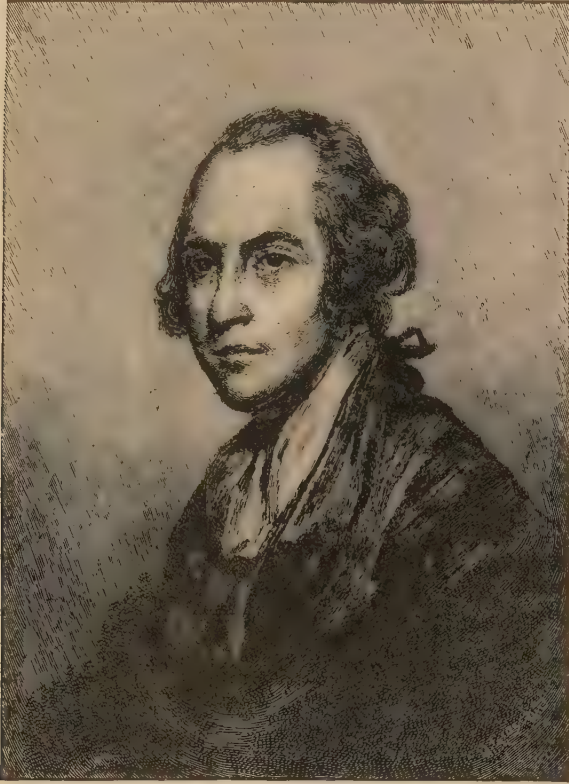
The
Third
Presi-
dent

Thomas Jefferson, the third President, was among the most learned men who have ever filled that office. He was a fine linguist, being master of Latin, Greek, French, Spanish, and Italian, and was besides an excellent musician, a good mathematician, and though not an orator, was a brilliant writer. He was born at Shadwell, Virginia, April 2, 1743. His father was a wealthy planter, who died when the son was fourteen years old and left him a large plantation. Jefferson was fond of athletic sports, but never wasted his time upon them. When a student at Williamsburg college, he often studied twelve hours out of the twenty-four, his rugged frame enabling him to stand this strain without harm. He was graduated during the stirring times just before the Revolution. After this, he married a wealthy lady and built a fine mansion, which he called Monticello (*mön-te-chel'lo*). He was one of the most ardent of patriots and was a member of the Virginia legislature while but a young man. A little later he was elected to Congress. It will not be forgotten that he was the author of the Declaration of Independence. Among the many excellent things he did was to secure the repeal of the law which provided that the land owned in a family should descend to the oldest son, as it did in England. This was known as the law of entail. In several of the states religion was established by law. So far as this applied to Virginia, he had the law abolished, and no one there was taxed to support any form of religion. During a part of the Revolution, Jefferson was governor of Virginia. He suffered

much domestic affliction, four of his six children dying in infancy, while his wife passed away at the close of the Revolution. Jefferson succeeded Franklin as minister to France, remaining abroad five years. He served as Washington's Secretary of State, resigning on the last day of July, 1793, and returning to Monticello.

Jefferson was the founder of the Democratic party of to-day.

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AARON BURR

Although a rich man, he favored simplicity and economy. He discontinued the official social receptions, because he thought them imitations of royalty. He would not tell his birthday, through fear that it would be celebrated. He discarded the fashionable silver buckles on his shoes, and used common leather strings. He preferred that every kind of title should be omitted when he was addressed. He ranks among the greatest of all our Presidents, and his administrations were among the most important in the history of the country.

Jefferson's
Simplicity

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Jefferson's
Cabinet

Jefferson enjoyed a comparatively tranquil time with his advisers. He selected James Madison, of Virginia, for his Secretary of State. Samuel Dexter, of Massachusetts, became Secretary of the Treasury, succeeded by Albert Gallatin, of Pennsylvania; General Henry Dearborn, of Massachusetts, Secretary of War; Benjamin Stoddert, of Maryland, Secretary of the Navy, succeeded by Robert Smith, of Maryland; Joseph Habersham, of Georgia, Postmaster-General, succeeded by Gideon Granger, of Connecticut; and Levi Lincoln, of Massachusetts, Attorney-General, succeeded by John Breckinridge, of Kentucky. He paid these gentlemen the compliment of saying, at the end of his two terms, that had he to choose again, he would select the same advisers. Nevertheless, some friction occurred. In those days, the administration was believed to end at midnight, March 3, instead of twelve hours later, as is now the case. Jefferson ordered Lincoln, his Attorney-General, to take possession of the office of Secretary of State at midnight, March 3, so as to stop the issuing of any more commissions by Adams' men. Secretary Dexter, a relic of the Adams administration, was requested to resign, but refused. He was removed, and Albert Gallatin became Secretary of the Treasury. He held that office from May 14, 1801, to February 9, 1804, during which he gained the reputation of being one of the foremost financiers of the age. John Breckinridge succeeded Lincoln as Attorney-General, holding that office from 1805 to 1807, when he died of typhus fever.

Measures of
the
Administration

President Jefferson resolved to administer every department of the government with the strictest economy. He cut down the diplomatic corps, submitted to Congress a bill for lessening the number of the judiciary, and proposed to remit the taxes. He went further than was wise, as was afterwards proved, when he reduced the navy, which was already weak and should have been stronger. He insisted that he could manage affairs better by having his friends rather than the enemies of his administration in public office, so he filled nearly all of them with Republicans, or perhaps, as we should say, with Democrats. Thus he was the first President to adopt the principle that "to the victors belong the spoils." Congress removed the tax on distilled spirits and certain other manufactures, and Jefferson dismissed a large number of collectors of internal revenue, whose support had taken a great deal of money from the taxpayers. The unpopular Sedition law was repealed and the Alien law greatly

changed. Then a systematic effort was made to reduce the public debt.

It may be said that Jefferson and his supporters introduced a new era into American life. They laughed at the stiff, formal fashions of the Federalists. They ceased wearing wigs and queues, being satisfied with the hair that nature placed on their heads, which they cut short, as it is worn in modern times. Jefferson himself always dressed with great plainness, and sometimes indeed was slovenly in his attire. The Democrats, as we shall call them from this time forward, insisted that every man should be allowed to vote, no matter whether he was wealthy or owned not a dollar's worth of property. Outside of New England, democratic ideas controlled the country, though the manner of government has never been really changed since it was organized.

General prosperity continued to increase. American commerce expanded to a wonderful degree. The leading nations of Europe being at war, our vessels secured most of the carrying trade of the world. Money came in so fast that by and by the greater part of the public debt was paid. The most important work of Jefferson's administration, however, was the gain of an enormous area of territory, more, in fact, than all we had owned up to that time.

We have already spoken of the immense country designated as Louisiana. It then included all the territory west of the Mississippi to the Rocky Mountains, from British America to the Gulf of Mexico. The area of the United States, when Jefferson became President, was 827,844 square miles. The extent of Louisiana alone was 1,171,931 square miles.

In 1802 France made peace with Great Britain, Spain, and Holland, and Bonaparte turned his attention to America. Spain had secretly ceded Louisiana back to France, and Bonaparte thought that he might establish a colonial empire there. Had he done so, he would have gained command of the Mississippi and the Gulf of Mexico. England was anxious to have him do this, for, as she thought, it would be a check upon American expansion; but Jefferson saw the danger, and wrote to Robert Livingston, our envoy at Paris, to urge upon the French Government the imprudence of retaining so large an area, three thousand miles from home. Bonaparte saw that Louisiana was more likely to prove a source of weakness than of strength to France, while the stronger we grew the worse

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General
Pros-
perity

Purchase
of Louisi-
ana

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Extent
of Louis-
iana

would it fare with his old enemy, England. The French Government was badly in need of money, and Bonaparte proposed to sell the territory to us. The price was readily agreed upon and the bargain was made April 30, 1803, the sum paid being \$15,000,000. From this new territory have since been formed the States of Louisiana, Arkansas, Oklahoma, Missouri, Kansas, Iowa, Nebraska, South and North Dakota, Montana, and most of the States of Minnesota, Colorado, and Wyoming. The governorship of the new territory was offered to Lafayette, but he declined it. Twelve thousand acres of the new possession, however, was presented to him. Peaceable possession was taken on the 20th of the following December. Perhaps it was natural that, while the West was delighted over the purchase, the East was uneasy lest its advantages should draw most of its population and wealth from the older portions of the country, a fear which proved unfounded.

We have referred to the insolence of the Barbary States, in northern Africa. These were Morocco, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli. The inhabitants were Mussulmans, and looked upon all Christian peoples as heathen, who deserved to be plundered and slain. They sent out piratical expeditions, which captured the vessels of the most powerful nations, who agreed to pay them a tribute each year on condition that they would let their commerce alone. The Barbary States were so far off, that it was then thought cheaper to pay their demands, and even submit to their outrages, than to send men-of-war to chastise them. Sometimes it happened that our Government was a little tardy in delivering the tribute, in which case the barbarian ruler would add a heavy penalty, which we had humbly to pay. He insisted also in placing his own valuation on the goods offered in payment, which was about one-half or a third of what they cost us. It will be seen, therefore, that those insolent Mohammedans had a very fine thing of it.

An Hu-
miliating
Duty

Captain William Bainbridge took the tribute to Algiers in 1800, in the frigate *George Washington*. He could hardly repress his disgust at having to perform this humiliating duty, but, as an officer, he was obliged to obey orders. The Dey of Algiers commanded him to carry the tribute of the Dey to the Sultan of Constantinople, and to haul down his own flag and run up that of Algiers. Bainbridge angrily refused. "You are my slaves, for you pay me tribute," said the Dey; "you must do as I tell you." And Bainbridge

did, for the castle guns in the harbor held him at their mercy. The Sultan, who had never heard of the United States, saw the Stars and Stripes in the Bosphorus for the first time. Bainbridge, on his re-

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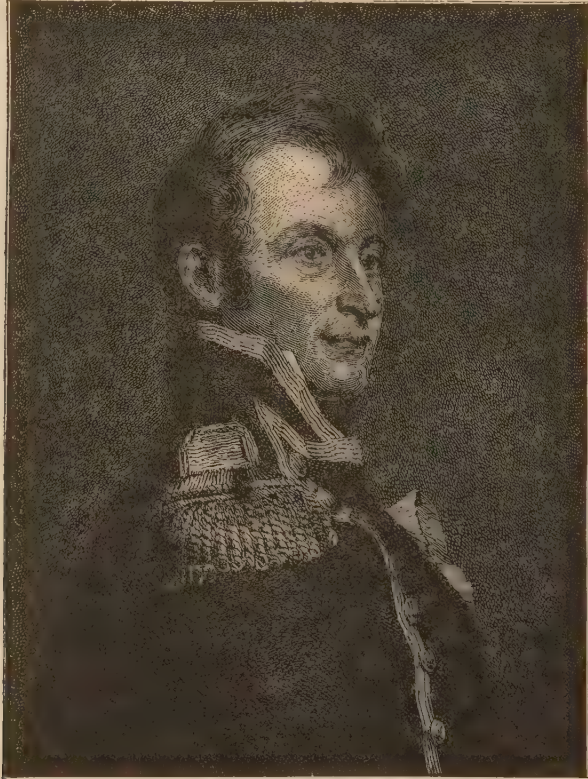


HUMILIATION OF CAPTAIN BAINBRIDGE

turn, wrote to the Secretary of the Navy, saying that "I hope I shall never again be sent to Algiers with tribute, unless I am authorized to deliver it from the mouth of our cannon."

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The news of this incident naturally excited indignation in the United States. The economy of the government had reduced the navy to thirteen frigates; but it was believed that these few ships, manned by our gallant tars, were sufficient to protect our commerce in the Mediterranean. In the spring of 1801, President Jefferson ordered Commodore Dale to cruise off the North African coasts, with



STEPHEN DECATUR

War De-
clared by
Tripoli

a squadron consisting of the frigates *President*, *Philadelphia*, *Essex*, and *Enterprise*. Reaching Gibraltar in July, Dale learned that Tripoli had declared war against the United States, which reciprocated the compliment June 10, 1801. Probably the ruler thought we were not quite as meek as we should be, or were too slow in paying over our tribute. His pirates were already hunting for American vessels, but they became guarded when the men-of-war appeared. The following year the frigates *Chesapeake*, *Constitution*, *New York*,

John Adams, *Adams*, and *Enterprise* were sent to the same waters, under the command of Commodore Richard V. Morris. The harbor of Tripoli was blockaded, and the *Chesapeake* had a hot fight with some Tripolitan gunboats, which were defeated. In 1803, the whole squadron appeared off the Barbary coast, and for the time American commerce was not disturbed. There was so much dissatisfaction

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CAPTURE OF THE PHILADELPHIA

with Morris, who had accomplished little, that the President dismissed him from the service without bringing him to trial.

The *Philadelphia* captured a Moorish cruiser, which had authority from the governor of Tangier to destroy American commerce. Commodore Preble demanded an explanation from the emperor, and he disavowed the act of the governor. Shortly after this, the *Philadelphia*, while pursuing a blockade runner, ran upon a reef in the harbor of Tripoli. She was helpless, and was quickly surrounded by gunboats, who captured Bainbridge and his men and quickly made slaves of them. The vessel was floated off by the enemy when the tide rose, but one night in February, 1804, a vessel drifted close up to the *Philadelphia*. When hailed, she replied that she was a merchantman that had lost her anchor and therefore was unable to control

Loss of
the Phil-
adelphia

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her movements. By this stratagem she approached nigh enough to make fast to the frigate. At the moment she did so, Lieutenant Stephen Decatur and a number of volunteers leaped up and climbed upon the deck of the *Philadelphia*. The terrified Tripolitans were driven from the decks, and the frigate was fired in several places. Then the daring wrecking-party withdrew and reached the fleet in safety. The *Philadelphia* was burned to the water's edge.

Bom-
bardment
of Tripoli

Commodore Preble entered the harbor of Tripoli some time after this and bombarded the town from his mortar-boats, his frigates and schooners meanwhile engaging the batteries. One of the gunboats under Lieutenant James Decatur, a younger brother of Stephen, compelled a Tripolitan gunboat to strike her colors. As the lieutenant stepped on the deck to take possession, the treacherous captain shot him dead, and the boats swung apart. Stephen Decatur had just captured another gunboat, and when he learned of the murder of his brother, he made chase after the escaping enemy and led the charge over her side. The Algerine captain was a man of giant stature, dressed in gaudy uniform, and he rushed forward to meet the American, confident of readily overcoming him, for the "heathen" was but a stripling in size compared with himself. Amid fierce fighting around them the combatants speedily came face to face. The Moor lunged at Decatur with a pike, while Decatur parried so dexterously that the giant swung half-way round on his feet, but bounded back with agility; at the moment Decatur made a sweeping blow with his sword, which would have hewed off the head of his foe had it landed, but it struck the pike and the blade snapped in two near the hilt. The pike was coming again and Decatur parried it with the broken weapon, but the point inflicted a wound on his breast. Seizing the pike, he wrenched it from his enemy's grasp, flung it aside, and leaped at his foe, neither of them having a weapon in hand.

Daring
Exploit
of
Lieuten-
ant
Stephen
Decatur

Decatur was noted from boyhood for his skill in wrestling, but the herculean Moor brought him to the deck flat on his back, with his enemy on top. The Tripolitan reached down to draw his yataghan (a dagger about eight inches long, curved like a scimeter, and with an ivory handle) which was in front of him, in the sash around his waist. Reading his purpose, Decatur flung his legs over the back of his foe, and, with his left arm around his neck, held him so close that the Moor could not force his hand between their two bodies. Decatur's pistol was on his right hip and he readily drew it. Reach-

ing up over the back of his foe, Decatur turned the muzzle downwards towards himself and pressed the trigger. The chances were that the bullet would pass through both bodies, but fortunately it did not. A bone checked its course, and the Moor rolled over on the deck dead. Decatur saved his life by a desperate act, which was characteristic of him.* During this struggle, Decatur was attacked by another barbarian, who would have slain him but for Reuben James, a sailor, who, his arms being disabled, thrust his head forward and received the blow on his skull. A frightful wound was the result, and it seemed impossible that James should survive for an hour, but he lived nearly forty years afterwards and did gallant service in the War of 1812.

Tripoli was bombarded repeatedly, but the bomb-shells were of inferior quality and little harm was done. Then the *Intrepid*, in which Decatur captured the *Philadelphia*, was fitted out as a bomb-ketch. A hundred barrels of powder, with shot, shell, and scraps of iron, were stowed in the hold and spread over the deck. The purpose was to send this terrific torpedo among the Tripolitan fleet and explode it. The *Intrepid* was placed in charge of Captain Richard Somers, Lieutenant Henry Wadsworth (an uncle of Longfellow the poet, who was named for him), and eleven men, who were to sail stealthily to a given point, light a slow match, and then row away in small boats. The *Intrepid* was convoyed to the western entrance to the harbor by several small vessels, under charge of Master-Commandant Charles Stewart, who there bade good-by to Somers. Somers declared that if he found himself in danger of capture, he would blow up the bomb-ketch while still aboard of her. The night was clear overhead, the stars shining, but a haze rested on the water.

"We watched the *Intrepid*," said Admiral Stewart more than sixty years after the event, "as it slowly disappeared in the gloom. I held my night-glass leveled, but it was soon lost to sight. Then came the anxious minutes of suspense. I was still looking, when I saw a point of light move rapidly to one side, slightly rising and falling, as it would do, if a man held a lantern in his hand while running. Then the light dropped from sight, as if the one carrying it

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✓ A Des-
perate
Exploit

The
Bomb-
ketch

*This is the exact story as Admiral Charles Stewart told it to the writer, and he received it from Decatur, within two hours after the fight. Decatur brought away the yataghan of his enemy and presented it to Stewart, his intimate friend from boyhood.

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had leaped down a hatchway. I knew what it meant. Somers had been discovered and was about to blow up the *Intrepid*. Suddenly a vast column of fire shot upwards, and the sea rocked. The air was filled with flaming bombs, sails, missiles and fragments which continued splashing into the water, as it seemed to me, for several minutes, when all became dark and silent as before. It can never be known whether the explosion was intentional or not, but I have no doubt that Somers deliberately blew up the ketch, when he found that it was a choice between that and being taken prisoner."

A Land
Move-
ment

Commodore Samuel Barron arrived in November, 1804, with the *President* and the *Constellation*, and superseded Commodore Preble. The squadron now consisted of ten vessels, carrying two hundred and sixty-four guns. During the blockade of Tripoli, a land movement was undertaken against the province, under the management of William Eaton, our consul at Tunis. Yusef, the Pasha of Tripoli, had gained his throne by murdering his father and displacing his brother Hamet Caramalli, who fled to Egypt. Nursing his resentment against his usurping brother, Hamet readily agreed to Eaton's designs to restore him to power. In March, 1805, Eaton and Hamet left Egypt, with a strong force of Egyptian soldiers and seventy American seamen. They marched a thousand miles across the borders of the Libyan desert, and, in the latter part of April, with the help of three American vessels, captured the Tripolitan city of Derne, on the Mediterranean coast. They were about to march against the capital, when news came that Tobias Lear, the American consul-general, had made a treaty of peace with the Pasha, who was frightened well-nigh out of his senses. The treaty was made June 3, 1805. By its terms, sixty thousand dollars were paid for the captives in the hands of the Tripolitans, an exchange of prisoners was made, and the paying of tribute was henceforth ended. Poor Hamet was now in a bad plight. He had come a long way across the desert, buoyed up by the promise of the United States to restore his throne to him, but the terms of the treaty forbade anything of the kind. He had to leave his wife and children with his brother as hostages for his peaceful conduct. He visited the United States, and Congress finally granted him a beggarly twenty-four hundred dollars, with which he had to be content.

The
Terms of
Peace

Upon the recommendation of President Jefferson, Congress made an appropriation for an exploring expedition across the continent



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From the Original Painting by N. P. Snyder

BLOWING UP OF THE BOMB KETCH

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The
Lewis
and
Clarke
Expedi-
tion

from the Mississippi. A company, numbering thirty men, left the Mississippi, May 14, 1804, under the command of Captains Meriwether Lewis and William Clarke. They ascended the Missouri in a flotilla for twenty-six hundred miles, giving names to the Jefferson, Gallatin, and Madison streams, which unite to form the Missouri. A detachment was then left in charge of the boats, and the remainder, mounted on horses, rode across the mountains, discovering two rivers which were named for Lewis and Clarke, and traced them to the Columbia, which was subsequently followed to the Pacific. These were the first white men to cross the American continent north of Mexico. They were gone two years, and brought back much valuable information. Captain Clarke became governor of Missouri Territory, and later superintendent of Indian Affairs, dying in St. Louis in 1838. Captain Lewis was governor of Missouri Territory from 1806 to 1809, when he unfortunately committed suicide.

Duel
Between
Burr and
Hamilton

In the summer of 1804, the whole country was shocked by a deplorable event. Although Aaron Burr was a brilliant man, with unusual gifts, Alexander Hamilton believed him an unfit person to hold office, and strongly opposed him at all times. It was he who prevented Burr from becoming President. Burr finally challenged him to a duel, and it was fought at Weehawken, on the Hudson, opposite New York, where a son of Hamilton had been killed some time before, in accordance with the barbarous so-called "code of honor." Hamilton fired his pistol in the air, but Burr took deliberate aim and Hamilton fell, mortally wounded, dying the next day. Burr presided in the Senate after this murder, but his friends fell away from him, and he was not renominated with Jefferson in the autumn following. The ambitious but vicious man formed a scheme for founding an empire in the south. The truth is not fully known, but many believed that he meant to intrigue for the possession of Mexico, while others thought that he had designs upon Louisiana. Harman Blennerhassett, who had a charming home on Blennerhassett's Island, in the Ohio, near Marietta, received a visit from Burr and readily fell in with his plans and agreed to give him all the help he could. Burr continued down the river to New Orleans, where he held several secret conferences with General James Wilkinson, commander of the American army in that section, and also governor of Louisiana. Burr insisted that Wilkinson pledged himself

to support his scheme, but Wilkinson denied it, though his course on other occasions makes it probable that Burr told the truth about him. Burr was finally arrested on the charge of treason, and brought to trial in Richmond, Virginia, in 1807, but was acquitted.

Ohio was admitted into the Union, November 29, 1802. It was a part of the Northwest Territory, being the first state formed under

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DUEL BETWEEN BURR AND HAMILTON

the Ordinance of 1787. The pioneer settlement was made at Marietta, in 1788. Cincinnati, first called Losantiville, was founded in the same year. The settlers suffered greatly from Indians, until the latter were subdued by Wayne in 1794. Emigration then became rapid, and the state speedily advanced in prosperity, until it grew to be one of the leading members of the Union. Its name means "The beautiful river."

In the Presidential election of 1804, the Federalist candidates were C. C. Pinckney, of South Carolina, and Rufus King, of New York. George Clinton, of New York, took the place of Aaron Burr with

Admis-
sion of
Ohio

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Jefferson on the Democratic ticket. Out of the one hundred and seventy-six electoral votes the Federalists received only fourteen.*

*Charles Cotesworth Pinckney had been attorney-general of his colony, South Carolina, and member of its Provincial Congress in 1775. He was a major in the war, and surrendered at Charleston in 1780. He was a member of the Federal Convention in 1787, and the leader in his state in securing the ratification of the Constitution in 1788. As we have learned, he accepted the mission to France in 1796, but the Directory refused to recognize him. As already noted his answer to the French proposals to bribe the American envoys was the famous phrase: "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute!" Rufus King had been a member of the Massachusetts legislature, and a delegate to the Continental Congress, where, in 1785, he moved the provision against slavery in the Northwest Territory. He was a member of the Constitutional Convention of 1787, and zealously urged the ratification of the Constitution by Massachusetts. Removing to New York, he was a Federalist United States Senator in 1789-1796. He served as minister to London 1796-1803, and was again in the Senate 1813-1825. His last service at the Court at London was 1825-1826. George Clinton was a soldier in the French and Indian War and a member of the New York Assembly. For some time after the opening of the Revolution he was a member of the Continental Congress, but soon entered the military field. He was brigadier-general in 1777, when he made an unsuccessful defense of the Highland forts. He was first governor of the State of New York, serving from 1777 to 1795, and opposed with might and main the ratification of the Federal Constitution. He was again governor 1801-1804, and, being elected Vice-President in the latter year, acted as such under Jefferson and Madison until 1812. He gave the casting vote in 1811 against the United States Bank.





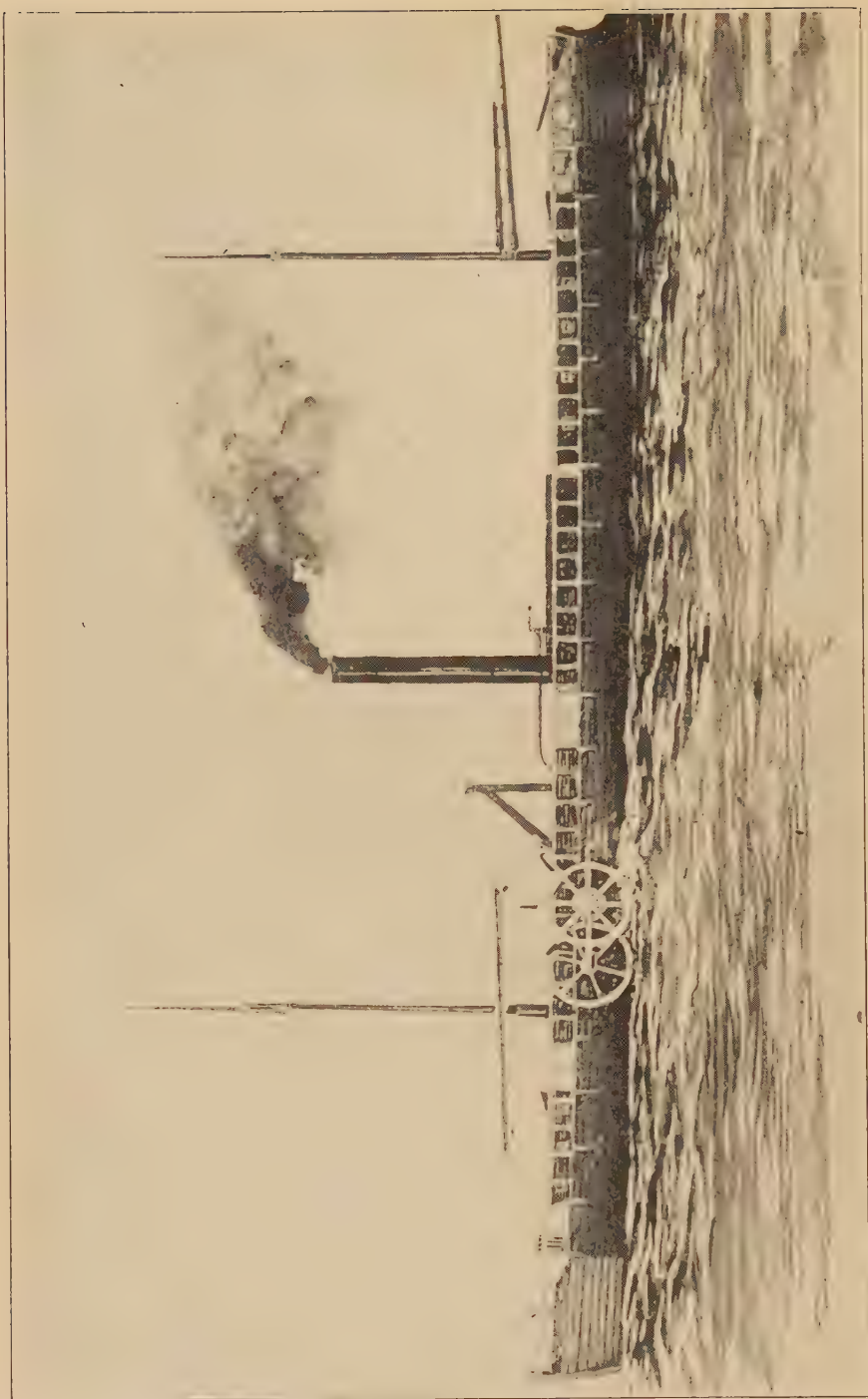
CHAPTER VI

JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION—SECOND TERM, 1805-1809

[*Author's Note:* Jefferson's second period of office brought his administration into diplomatic embroilment with the two great powers of Europe, which were hurling against each other "Orders in Council," answered by "Milan" and "Berlin Decrees," in the effort to cripple one another's commerce, while their respective fleets had but lately met in a death embrace at Trafalgar. It was a trying time for a neutral nation like the young Republic, irritated at Napoleon's adoption of a "Continental System" and the seizure of American merchandise, and stung to the quick at Britain's arrogant assumption of "the right of search" and the impressment of seamen. Diplomatic overtures and the resort to an "embargo" were alike failures; while non-intercourse did not help matters much, for it was but a temporary expedient, which postponed war only by acquiescence in a present humiliating necessity. What the results were to be, we shall see hereafter. Interest in the naval engagements of the period is divided by the appearance of the first steamboat as an auxiliary of commerce. The authorities are the same as those cited at the head of the previous chapter.]



It will be recalled that, previous to the general election of 1804, the electoral method provided that the electors should ballot for two candidates for the Presidency. The one receiving the highest number of votes became President, and the one receiving the next highest became Vice-President. Thus when the two officers belonged to different parties the administration would be changed if the President died. The prolonged contest over the first election of Jefferson, and the danger thus brought to the Republic, led Congress to amend the Constitution so that Jefferson was voted for as President, and George Clinton as Vice-President.



THE "KATHERINE OF CLERMONT"

Jefferson's second inauguration was a quiet event. He took the oath in the Senate chamber and delivered his inaugural address to the distinguished audience there assembled. A procession was formed at the Navy Yard, consisting of the mechanics employed there, and, with the insignia of the ship-building art, they escorted Jefferson to the White House. Jefferson declined to have soldiers about him, and the local troops who took part did so in a subordinate capacity. The streets were crowded with people, who cheered him at every step of the way. He had lost none of his popularity, for he was a great man, and, above all, a true American who proved his patriotism in every test to which it was subjected.

One of the most noteworthy events of Jefferson's second term was the first voyage of a steamboat on the Hudson river. The boat was the *Katherine of Clermont*, and was constructed by Robert Fulton, a native of Lancaster county, Pennsylvania. She was nearly twenty feet wide and more than a hundred feet long, with side-paddle wheels.

The *Savannah* was the first ship to cross the Atlantic with the aid of steam. Her experience in more than one respect was unique. Departing from New York, in 1819, she passed down the coast to the city of Savannah, and then headed for Liverpool. Her engines worked badly and she could carry only enough fuel without a cargo to last fourteen days, when she had to rely wholly upon her sails for the remaining eight days of her voyage. When off the city of Cork, at the entrance to the English Channel, she managed to fire up again in order to make an impressive appearance.

The *Savannah* steamed to Petrograd (St. Petersburg), where the owners offered to sell her to the Emperor of Russia. He shook his head, and she meandered to Norway. There her machinery was taken out and she dropped back into the company of regular sailers. In time she found her way to New York, and finally was wrecked on the shore of Long Island.

It must not be thought that steam had never been employed as a motor or moving force until applied to Fulton's *Clermont*. The steam-engine invented by Watt had been in use for forty years. It is claimed that as far back as 1543 Blasco de Garay propelled a boat by means of steam applied to paddle-wheels, and in 1707 Papin ran a boat on a river in Germany, while in 1763 William Henry experimented with his steamboat on the Conestoga river, in Pennsylvania. Still other experiments were made between the years 1774 and 1786.

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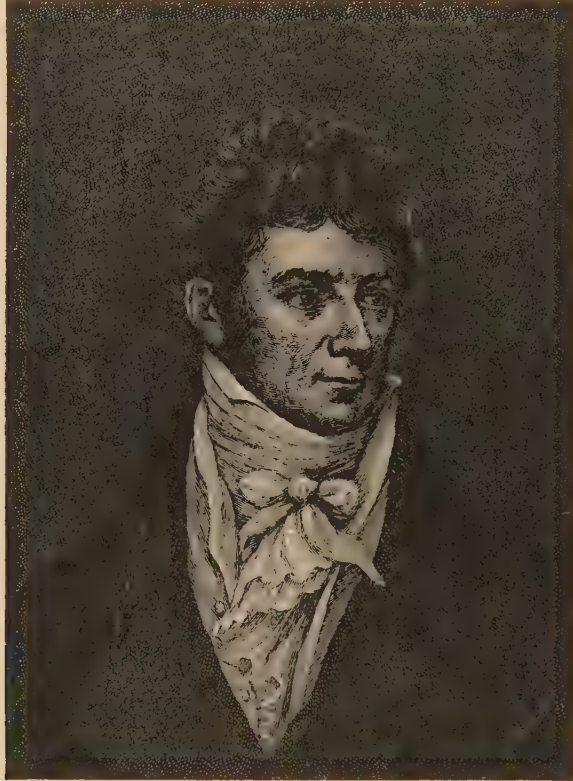
First
Steam-
boat

Steam
Naviga-
tion

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It has been shown that John Fitch had a crudely constructed steamboat on the Delaware in the latter year, besides which similar experiments were made later on in the same river and also in England, but Fulton's *Clermont* is considered the first practical steamboat.*

Bearing upon the question of the first American steamboat, is the



ROBERT FULTON

Fulton
Not the
First
Steam
Navi-
gator

following extract from an article by James Weir, Jr., in *The Engineering Magazine*:

"To Robert Fulton is generally given the credit of having discovered the first method of propelling vessels through the agency of steam; yet it can be clearly shown that two other men antedated him,

*It is interesting to know that a small child who made this first voyage on the *Clermont* lived until 1895. She was Mrs. Margaret Cook, of Columbus, Ohio.

even here in America, in this discovery. One preceded him by almost twenty years, the other by eighteen or nineteen years.

"The man who, in America, first discovered a method of successfully propelling a vessel against wind and tide, with steam as the motive power, was James Rumsey. The Government of the United States has recognized this to be an established fact, for in 1839 Congress ordered a medal to be struck in his honor, commemorative of this brilliant achievement. James Rumsey was born of Scotch parents in 1754. Maryland was his native state, but he removed to Shepherdstown, Va., when about twenty years of age. He had all the native shrewdness and astuteness generally ascribed to the Scotchman. He was a man of fine presence, tall and powerfully built. While, strictly speaking, not an educated man, he was an omnivorous reader and well versed in matters pertaining to his profession—civil engineering. He was a good talker, but a better listener, and his neighbors regarded him with respect and looked upon him as a man of undoubted genius. He early turned his attention to invention, and the writer had until a short time ago a pistol made by him, which shows his inventive ability.

"When Rumsey removed from Maryland to Shepherdstown, he entered the service of the Potomac Company as superintendent. While in the service of this company he suggested many novel views in mechanics, and invented and put into operation numerous improvements in milling, especially in the application of hydraulics as the motive power. The steam engine was then in its infancy. Watt was just beginning to perfect his wonderful invention. Machinists were rude and unskilled in their profession, and Rumsey was forced to plan, model, and make his own machinery. He even did the most important casting himself—making the moulds and running off the metal with his own hands. Testimony adduced before the House of Representatives in 1839 shows that Rumsey had conceived the idea of steam navigation as early as August, 1783, (*Congressional Record*). Laboring under very adverse circumstances, he succeeded in the autumn of 1784 in making a test of some of the principles of his engine and propelling apparatus. In October, 1784, the Virginia legislature passed an act 'guaranteeing to him the exclusive use of his invention in navigating the waters of Virginia' (Stat. Virg., 1784). About this time he wrote to General Washington, communicating to him the principles of his invention. General Wash-

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Credit
to
Whom
Credit is
Due

Achieve-
ments of
James
Rumsey

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Congress
Votes
Medal
to Son of
Rumsey

ington wrote of Rumsey's invention to Governor Johnson of Maryland. This letter is dated November, 1787, and was produced before a committee of the House in 1839, at which time the following resolution was offered and passed:

"Resolved, by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled: That the President be, and is hereby, requested to present to James Rumsey, Jr., the son and only surviving child of James Rumsey, deceased, a suitable gold medal, commemorative of his father's services and high agency in giving to the world the benefits of the steamboat."

In January, 1785, Rumsey obtained a patent from the General Assembly of Maryland for navigating the waters of that state (Acts Gen. Ass. Maryland, 1785). During the whole of this year he was busy in the construction of a steamboat. In 1786 he successfully navigated this boat on the Potomac at Shepherdstown in the presence of hundreds of spectators.

It was at this time that Napoleon Bonaparte fairly entered upon his career as the greatest military genius of his age. All Europe was in turmoil, and he overturned kingdoms and dynasties as a child topples over toys. The only nation that seemed able to offer any real check to his aggressions was England. The two countries were long at war with each other, and the other nations of Europe could not help but suffer in the embroilment. France had the most effective army and Great Britain the most powerful navy. Each tried to make the other nations act as its friends. In 1806, Great Britain proclaimed a blockade of all that part of Europe which had taken sides with France, and forbade vessels to enter its harbors. Napoleon promptly answered this with the *Berlin Decree*, which forbade the British harbors to all vessels of other nations. In 1807, by an Order in Council, Great Britain forbade American vessels to enter any harbors in Europe except her own and those of Sweden, which was friendly to England. Napoleon retorted with the *Milan Decree*, which ordered the capture and sale of any American vessel that should sail into a British port.

A Fatal
Blow to
Ameri-
can Nav-
igation

This was a fatal blow to American commerce. If one of our vessels tried to trade with Europe, without first entering a British harbor and paying "tribute" she was liable to capture by English cruisers, just as was formerly the case with the Barbary States. If she complied with British law, then the French cruisers would seize

her, should the chance offer. This was in itself bad enough, but England's claim to the right of impressment was tenfold more irritating. She would stop a vessel belonging to any other nation, and forcibly take away sailors who had been born within the kingdom. Her excuse was that no such person could free himself from British allegiance by becoming a citizen of another country. "Once an English subject always an English subject," was her dictum.

Great Britain, as has been said, was engaged in a gigantic war with France and had need of every sailor. Many of them deserted, and some found refuge in our own service. She required them all, and for that reason determined to have them. This was the British view, but the true doctrine of nations is that the deck of every vessel is as sacred as the soil of the country whose flag floats at her mast-head. England, therefore, had no more right to stop and search an American vessel than she had to land a body of soldiers and rifle the houses in any city of this country.

In the spring of 1806, the British ship *Leander* was cruising off New York and making a vigorous hunt for runaway seamen. Suspecting a coasting vessel near Sandy Hook, she fired into her and killed one of her crew. President Jefferson, on the 3d of May, issued a proclamation, forbidding the *Leander* and the two ships in her company to enter the waters of the United States, calling upon all military and civil officers to apprehend Henry Whitby, the captain of the *Leander*, on a charge of murder, and prohibiting any communication between the shore and the offending ships. Special envoys were sent to England to arrange the trouble, but nothing was accomplished, and very soon the most aggravating outrage of all occurred.

On the 22d of June, the *Chesapeake*, of thirty-six guns, under the command of Captain James Barron, was off the coast of Virginia, on her way to the Mediterranean, when she was hailed by the fifty-gun ship *Leopard*, Captain Humphreys in command, who said that he wished to send dispatches to England. Such courtesies were common, and a boat was lowered and sent aboard the *Chesapeake*. The lieutenant was conducted to the cabin, where he handed Captain Barron an order, signed by Vice-Admiral Berkeley, directing all commanders in his squadron to board the *Chesapeake*, wherever found on the high seas, and make search for deserters. Captain Barron returned a note, refusing to comply with the demand, and ordered his vessel to be cleared for action. The *Chesapeake* was in no condition

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The
British
"Right
of
Search"

The
Chesapeake
and the
Leopard

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for a fight. Tumbled upon the decks were cabin furniture, provisions, chicken-coops, and personal effects; even the rammers, wads, matches, gunlocks, and powder-horns could not be produced. Captain Humphreys fired a shot ahead of the *Chesapeake's* bow, and, as she did not heave to, the *Leopard* followed with a broadside, which wounded several men, including the captain. Other broadsides were fired, while the *Chesapeake* could not return a single shot, owing to the confusion on her decks. Out of her crew of three hundred and seventy-five men, three were killed and eighteen wounded. She was then boarded by several officers, who mustered her crew and picked out four men who were deserters, but all claimed to be American citizens. One of them was hanged at the yard-arm, while the other three, who were negroes, saved their lives by re-entering the British service.

Action
of Con-
gress

This outrage caused intense anger in the United States. Captain Barron was tried by court-martial and suspended from the service for five years without pay. Years afterwards he and Decatur fought a duel, because of criticisms made by the latter upon the affair, and Decatur was killed. These alarming outrages taught the United States the need of a strong navy with which to protect her commerce, whose sails now whitened every sea. In December Congress authorized the construction of one hundred and eighty-eight additional gunboats, making a total of two hundred and fifty-seven of that class. An embargo was declared on foreign commerce, and all the war vessels were recalled from the Mediterranean. In January, 1809, the President was empowered to put in commission the frigates *United States*, *President*, and *Essex*, and the corvette *John Adams*, and to increase the naval equipment of men from fourteen hundred and twenty-five to five thousand and twenty-five men and boys. The utmost care was exercised in training the men at the guns and in working the ships, so as to be ready for instant action.*

The
Presi-
dent's
Procla-
mation

The President then issued a proclamation closing all American harbors and waters against the English navy, prohibited intercourse with such vessels, and sent a special minister to England to secure satisfaction. A hundred thousand men in the various states were ordered to hold themselves in readiness, and Congress was convened on the 25th of October, by which time it was expected that a reply

*Maclay's "History of the United States Navy."

from the British ministers would be received. The action of Captain Humphreys was disavowed and reparation offered, and Admiral Berkeley was recalled. The reparation was never made, and the claim of right of search was not given up, but the English officers were instructed to use no needless violence in enforcing it.

The United States had no navy worthy of the name, and the partial concession of Great Britain averted war for the time. On the

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CHESAPEAKE AND LEOPARD

21st of December, Congress passed the Embargo Act, which forbade all American vessels to leave the ports of the United States. The belief was that this suspension of commercial intercourse with Great Britain and France would force those nations to recognize American neutrality. The real sufferers, however, were ourselves. The commerce of New England and New York was ruined, and the people became bitterly dissatisfied. The enemies of the measure reversed the spelling of the name and called it the "O-grab-me" act. The Embargo Act was a failure. Finally the people in New England became so desperate over the annihilation of the country's commerce that they began to talk of separating from the Union. Other parts of the country also suffered, for crops were of little value when there

The Embargo Act

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were no means of taking them to foreign countries to sell. Great Britain was of course pleased, for she thus gained about all the trade that was left.

During these troublous times, the Presidential election of 1808 took place. The Federalist candidates were again Pinckney and King, who received forty-seven of the one hundred and seventy-six electoral votes, the majority of votes going to James Madison and George Clinton, the latter of whom was already Vice-President. Jefferson could have been renominated, had he wished it, but he declined.

Slavery

In the year 1807 Congress passed an act which made it unlawful for any person to bring slaves into the United States. Slavery existed at first in all the colonies, having been introduced into Virginia by the Dutch in 1619. It appeared in Massachusetts in 1638, in South Carolina in 1671, and in Georgia in 1751. The first American slave-ship was built in 1636, at Marblehead, Mass., and was named *The Desire*.





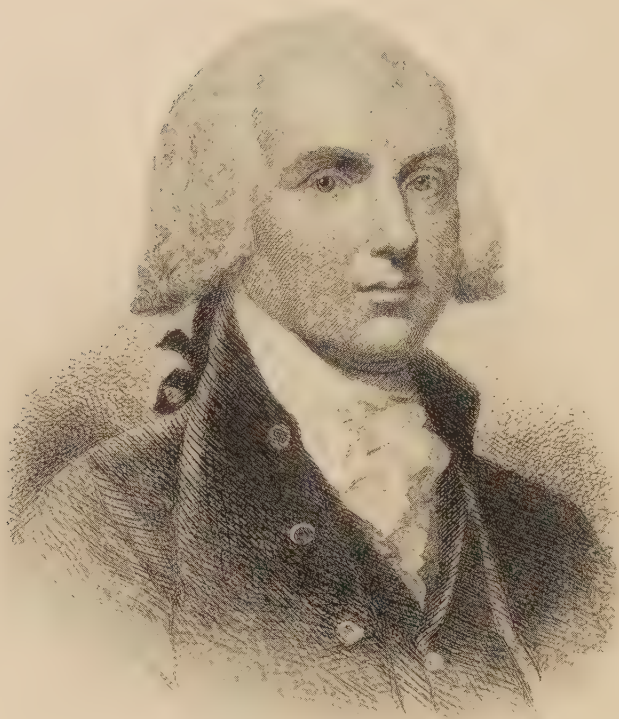
CHAPTER VII

MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION—FIRST TERM, 1809-1813

[*Author's Note:* When Madison assumed the Presidency, with the troubles that beset the office at the period, we begin to trace the influence of the West and South in national politics. This is distinctly seen in the attitude of Congress in relation to the then pending war with England, an attitude which neutralized the hitherto potent influences of the Middle States and those of the East. This was, in part, the result of the natural expansion westward, and, in part, the influence of Clay, who had become Speaker of the House of Representatives, aided by Calhoun, future champion of the slave power—both of whom were eager for war. But before the war came western settlement had its sequel in another Indian rising, this time under "The Prophet," brother of Tecumseh, against whom General Harrison ("Old Tippecanoe") was dispatched to do battle. The result was such as the tribes had experienced when they, or their kin, at an earlier period, were proceeded against successively by Clarke, Harmar, St. Clair, and Wayne. The special authorities for the period are: Ridpath's standard "History of the United States"; McMaster's "History of the People of the United States," vols. iii and iv; Gay's "Madison"; Schurz's "Henry Clay"; Cooley's "Michigan"; and the Lives of General (President) Harrison and Tecumseh.]



JAMES MADISON, the fourth President of the United States, was born in Prince George county, Virginia, March 16, 1751. He received fine educational advantages and was graduated from Princeton college at the age of twenty. He was so close a student that he permanently injured his health by his devotion to his studies. At the breaking out of the Revolution he was elected to the Virginia legislature, and upon the return of Jefferson was offered the mission to France, but declined it. He also declined the post of Secretary of State, offered



James Madison

him by Washington, when it was vacated by Jefferson, his fear being that by accepting it he might bring discord into the Cabinet. He was at first a Federalist, but in time became an ardent Democrat. He served as Jefferson's Secretary of State throughout both terms. Jefferson held him in high esteem, since he was not only an able statesman, but a man of spotless character. He died June 28, 1836.

Madison's inauguration was attended by an immense assemblage. The day was ushered in by the booming of cannon, the militia companies gathering at an early hour and parading through the streets to the beating of drums. The President-elect was escorted from his house a little before noon by the troops of cavalry of Washington and Georgetown. He entered Representative Hall (now Statuary Hall) in the Capitol, attended by the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of the Navy, the Attorney-General, and the private secretary of Jefferson, and was introduced to the two houses there assembled by a joint committee of Congress. President Jefferson had arrived without escort a few minutes before. Mr. Milledge, *pro tem* president of the Senate, vacated the chair to Madison, who delivered his inaugural address. The oath was then administered by Chief Justice Marshall. The customary salute was fired, and passing outside, the President reviewed the companies of District militia, drawn up between the Capitol and the East Park, after which he entered his carriage and was escorted home, where he held a reception. He did not go to the White House until later, Jefferson meanwhile holding a farewell reception. The inauguration ball, at Lang's Hotel, was, we read, the most brilliant affair of the kind ever held in Washington.

Madison's first Secretary of War was John Armstrong, who was censured so severely for the lack of success by our armies in the operations in Canada, and especially for the capture and sacking of Washington, in August, 1814, that he bowed his head before the storm and resigned in the following September. During his two administrations, Madison had in all eighteen members in his Cabinet. They were: Secretaries of State—Robert Smith, of Maryland; James Monroe, of Virginia. Secretaries of the Treasury—Albert Gallatin, of Pennsylvania; George W. Campbell, of Tennessee; Alexander J. Dallas, of Pennsylvania; William H. Crawford, of Georgia. Secretaries of War—William Eustis, of Massachusetts; John Armstrong, of New York; James Monroe, of Virginia; William

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Madison's
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Madison's
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H. Crawford, of Georgia. Secretaries of the Navy—Paul Hamilton, of South Carolina; William Jones, of Pennsylvania; B. W. Crowninshield, of Massachusetts. Postmasters-General—Gideon Granger, of Connecticut; Return J. Meigs, Jr., of Ohio. Attorneys-General—Caesar A. Rodney, of Delaware; William Pinckney, of Maryland; Richard Rush, of Maryland.

The
Non-
Inter-
course
Act

Three days before the close of Jefferson's term Congress repealed the Embargo Act. This, however, afforded only partial relief, since the bulk of our trade was with Great Britain and France. The Non-Intercourse Act was passed in 1809, which allowed American merchantmen to go abroad, but forbade them to trade with the two great European nations. The law continued in force until 1810, when Congress declared that if either France or Great Britain would revoke her offensive decrees, the Non-Intercourse Act would be revived and enforced against the other. Napoleon promptly declared that his decrees were revoked; but this was a falsehood on his part, for they had not been annulled, and he had no intention that they should be. On the contrary, he enforced his decrees as severely as ever. His purpose was to array the United States against Great Britain, and he succeeded, for the Non-Intercourse Act was revived against her and she became more intolerable in her conduct than ever. Her war vessels hovered along the Atlantic coast and captured our merchantmen, often wantonly and without offering any reason for their action.

The Lit-
tle Belt
and the
Presi-
dent

In May, 1811, the British sloop *Little Belt* was busy stopping merchant vessels off Virginia, when she hailed the American frigate *President*, under Commodore Rodgers. Rodgers' answer did not suit the Englishman, who fired a shot into the *President*. Then the American made a still more unsatisfactory reply, in the shape of a terrific broadside, followed by others, which killed eleven and wounded twenty-one of the crew of the *Little Belt*. This affair took place at night, and the name of the British vessel was not learned until the following morning. The occurrence added to the excitement in both countries. Each government approved the action of its officer and the war spirit was in consequence intensified. An incident related by Maclay will show the feeling among our sailors. Some weeks after this encounter, the frigate *United States* was cruising off the harbor of New York, under Captain Stephen Decatur, when it fell in with the British warships *Eurydice* and *Atalanta*.

While the commanders were exchanging hails, a gunner aboard the *United States* handling the lanyard of his lock discharged his gun. He declared that it was an accident, but Decatur believed that it was done purposely to bring on an action. A fierce engagement would doubtless have followed had not the commanders been cool enough to await explanations. Decatur apologized for the carelessness of his gunner, who was probably as much disappointed as were his comrades that all for the time ended peaceably.

While the two nations were rapidly drifting towards war, there were events of importance occurring in other parts of the country. The population of the seventeen states, as shown by the census of 1810, was about seven and a quarter millions. Emigration poured westward in a steady stream. Sturdy settlers were clearing off the ground, building cabins, and planting crops, and there were signs of the growth and prosperity which were soon to build up the new states that would speedily knock at the door of the Union.

The Indians, however, continued sullen. They had plenty of land to the westward, but they were angered at the prospect of being driven from their homes. The British agents excited them to hostilities, and Tecumseh, the most gifted of American Indians, notified General Harrison, governor of the Northwest Territory, that he and his people would never consent to their land being occupied by the white men until such consent was given by all the tribes, instead of by the few claiming to own the lands. Had this rule been agreed to by our country, we never would have acquired any land from the Indians, from whom, it must be admitted, we have gained a great deal by dishonest means. Tecumseh* organized many of the tribes into a league to resist invasion by the settlers. Before long the Indians in the Wabash valley began killing the white people. To give them protection, General Harrison ascended the river to Terre

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The
Census
of 1810

Threat-
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Indian
Troubles

*"The tribe from which Tecumseh sprang," observed Wm. C. Mair, in his drama, *Tecumthé*, "was a branch of the widespread Lenni Lenape, or Delaware race, which had long been settled in the South, and which for this reason received the name of Shawanoes, or 'Southerners.' Having become involved in disputes with the Creeks, Yamasees, and other powerful tribes in Georgia and Florida, the Shawanoes removed in the first half of the last century from the South to the valley of the Ohio, and spread themselves along the banks of the Scioto river and the Great Miami. The immense region west of the Alleghenies was then an unbroken wilderness, with the exception of the villages of the red men, and it was in one of these that Tecumseh (said to mean a 'shooting star') was born in 1768. His father was killed at the battle of Kanawha, where, in October, 1774, Lord

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Haute (*terr' hôte*) where he built a fort. He then pushed on to the town of The Prophet, the brother of Tecumseh, who was a famous medicine man among his people. When near the town, which stood at the mouth of the Tippecanoe, a delegation of Indians met Harrison and asked for a "talk," to be held the next day. Harrison consented, though he distrusted the savages. That night his men slept on their arms.

The Bat-
tle of
Tippe-
canoe

It was not yet light on the morning of November 7, 1811, when the Indians burst into the camp and with great fury attacked the soldiers. Had the latter not been on the alert and prepared for hostilities they must have been massacred. They quickly extinguished their dimly burning camp-fires and kept their assailants at bay until daylight, when they charged upon the savages and scattered them with great loss. Of the Americans, sixty were killed and a hundred wounded. Harrison marched to The Prophet's town, which he burned, and then returned to Vincennes, the capital of the territory. Tecumseh was absent in the south at this time. The attack upon the Americans was contrary to his plans, and, when he came back and found what his brother had done, he seized him by his long hair and shook him until his teeth rattled, declaring that he had destroyed all his schemes, and that he ought to be killed. In his wrath, Tecumseh went to Canada and joined the British.

The
Twelfth
Con-
gress

The twelfth Congress of the United States was convened November 4, 1811. The new members were "war men," most of the "submission candidates" having been defeated. The country had by this time lost its patience. The President was not so ardent a war man as some wished, and one member declared that he could not be kicked into a fight. Henry Clay and John C. Calhoun impressed upon Madison that longer hesitation meant his overwhelm-

Dunmore defeated Chief Cornstalk. His mother was a Cherokee woman, and is said to have been delivered of Tecumseh, his celebrated brother, The Prophet, and a third brother at the same time." Like Pontiac, Tecumseh attempted to organize all the Western Indians into a confederacy against the white settlers of the region, and later on he became, with his band of Shawanoes, a redoubtable ally of the British, who gave him the rank of brigadier-general. He was with the British general, Sir Isaac Brock, at the surrender of Detroit, and with General Proctor at Fort Malden and Fort Meigs, where he intervened to prevent the American prisoners from being massacred. At the battle of Moravian Town, on the banks of the Thames (in the Ontario peninsula), Tecumseh commanded a portion of Proctor's army, and there, as will be seen, on the fifth of October (1813) the warrior chief met his death.



BATTLE OF TIPPECANOE

From the Original Drawing by W. F. Snyder

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ing defeat at the polls and humiliation before his countrymen. Finally, on the 19th of June, 1812, war was declared with Great Britain.

It must not be supposed that the War of 1812, as it is called, was favored in every part of the country. It was strongly supported in some sections, and warmly opposed in others. New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore passed resolutions approving the declaration of



STRENGTHENING THE PRESIDENT

war. A paper in Baltimore which opposed it was mobbed. In the rioting several people were killed, and General Richard Henry Lee, who commanded the military that suppressed the disorder, was so badly injured that he never fully recovered. The strongest opposition to the war was manifested in New England. The legislatures of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Jersey protested against it, and the shipping in Boston hung their flags at half-mast, but the enthusiasm elsewhere swept away all opposition. It was ordered that the regular army of six thousand men should be increased to twenty-five thousand, to which were added a call for fifty thousand volunteers. The states were asked to provide one hundred thousand

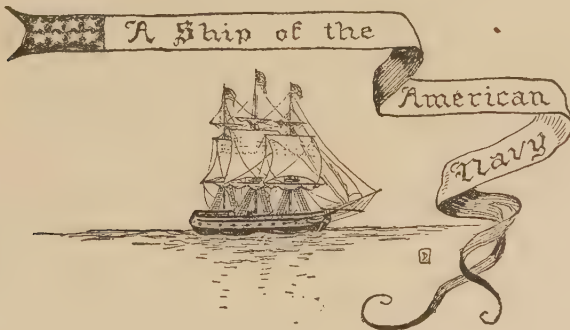
Opposi-
tion to
the War

militia for the defense of the coasts and harbors. Congress meanwhile authorized a national loan of \$11,000,000, and Henry Dearborn, of Massachusetts, was appointed major-general and commander of the army. He had been a member of Arnold's expedition to Quebec in 1775, and had assisted in the capture of Burgoyne. Thomas Pinckney also was made a major-general. The leading brigadiers were James Wilkinson, Joseph Bloomfield, William Hull, and Wade Hampton.

It cannot be said that the United States was in a very effective condition to measure strength with Great Britain, for our navy consisted of only seventeen men-of-war, of over fifteen thousand aggregate tonnage, with four hundred and forty-two guns, the officers and men numbering about five thousand. On the other hand, the stupendous navy of Great Britain included one thousand and forty-eight men-of-war, of an aggregate tonnage of eight hundred and seventy thousand, with close upon twenty-eight thousand guns, manned by over one hundred and fifty thousand officers and men. The Government regarded the situation on the ocean as so hopeless that it decided to keep its few cruisers in the harbors to act only on the defensive, believing the risk too great to let them venture upon the high seas. Captains William Bainbridge and Charles Stewart finally prevailed upon the authorities to allow our officers the free run of the seas, but the navy department thought it necessary for the vessels to sail in squadrons so as to protect one another.

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Weak-
ness of
Our
Country





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From the Original Drawing by H. A. Ogden

SURRENDER OF DETROIT



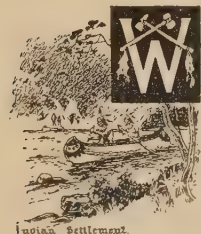
CHAPTER VIII

MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION—FIRST TERM

(Continued)

THE WAR OF 1812

[*Author's Note:* The American patriot of to-day can hardly look back with pride on the chief event of the Madison administrations—the second war with England—into which the country had been forced by the violence of party, in spite of the better sense of the nation. To play into the hands of Napoleon, who showed himself no friend of the United States, by declaring war against the one power in the Old World that was holding the great oppressor of nations at bay, was not the act of the highest wisdom, however galling were the outrages, on the part of both European combatants that provoked it. But political passions were then in the ascendant, and in their presence and action it was not difficult, as events proved, to stifle the voice of reason. The authorities for the period are McMaster's "History of the People of the United States"; Goldwin Smith's "Political History of the United States"; Kingsford's "History of Canada"; together with Lossing's "Field-Book of the War of 1812"; Roosevelt's "Naval History of the War of 1812"; and Coffin's "War of 1812" (Montreal, 1860).]



WILLIAM HULL, who had served creditably as a colonel in the Revolution, was governor of the Territory of Michigan. The government, forgetful of the disastrous invasion of Canada in 1775, believed that the people on the other side of the lakes and the St. Lawrence would flock to our standard when it was raised among them, and so another invasion was planned. Canada at that time was divided into Upper and Lower Canada, the former extending westward from Montreal along the St. Lawrence and Lake Ontario to Lake Huron and the Detroit river. This region contained about a hundred thousand inhabitants, made up chiefly of the families of

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Hull's
Invasion

Tories, who, having been driven from their own country, were not likely to feel very friendly towards it. General Sir Isaac Brock was the acting lieutenant-governor and commander-in-chief of the military forces of both provinces. He was a man of much ability and military ardor.

General Hull, having been directed to use his discretion, made preparations to invade Upper Canada. At the head of two thousand troops, with which he was marching against the Indians, he crossed the Canadian border, July 12, to Sandwich, with the purpose of capturing Malden, which could have been readily done had he moved promptly, but he was timid and hesitated until the place was strongly reinforced. Fort Mackinaw, one of the principal posts in the north-west, on an island near the Straits of Mackinaw, was surprised and captured by a force of British and Indians. Learning that Major Brush, dispatched by Governor Meigs, of Ohio, was approaching with reinforcements and supplies, Hull sent Major Van Horne with a detachment to conduct him to Detroit. Van Horne was drawn into ambush near Brownstown by the Indian chief Tecumseh, and badly defeated. General Brock, in the meantime, had strongly reinforced Malden. Hull sent Lieutenant-Colonel Miller to reopen communication with the base of supplies at Raisin river. The Indians lay in wait for him, but were routed and driven to their boats. Frightened at learning that Brock was at Malden, Hull recrossed the river to Detroit on the 7th of August. Brock followed with seven hundred troops and six hundred Indians and demanded the instant surrender of the place, managing at the same time to convey an unofficial hint that if surrender was refused, the garrison would be turned over to the mercies of his Indian allies.

A Dis-
graceful
Surren-
der

Detroit was not only well garrisoned, and with men eager to fight, but Colonels Cass and McArthur, with four hundred troops, were on their way to Detroit and near enough to attack the enemy in the rear; but Hull was old and timid. His daughter was among the refugees at Detroit, who included many old men, women and children, and instead of giving the order to his gunners to fire, as they stood ready with lighted matches, he waited until the enemy was within a fourth of a mile, when he ran up the white flag in token of surrender. After a short parley, the disgraceful submission was made. Detroit was given up, and every soldier under Hull's command in the Michigan Territory was surrendered to the enemy.



BATTLE OF QUEENSTOWN HEIGHTS

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Some of the American officers were so enraged that they denounced their leader, broke their swords, and tore off and trampled upon their epaulets. The troops under Captain Brush, on the river Raisin, thirty-six miles below Detroit, refused to be bound by the capitulation agreement, and marched into Ohio. The country was exasperated by the weak act of Hull. A certain number of prisoners were given in exchange for him, and he was tried by court-martial for treason, cowardice, and conduct unworthy of an officer. He was found guilty of the last two charges and the death sentence was passed upon him, but President Madison pardoned him on account of his services during the War for Independence. He lived until 1825, suffering the scorn of his countrymen, who could pity but would not forgive him for what he did.

Massa-
cre at
Fort
Dear-
born

A visitor to the modern great western metropolis of Chicago finds it hard to realize that when the War of 1812 broke out there was no sign of a city there. A portion of the site was occupied by Fort Dearborn, which was then held by Captain Nathan Heald and fifty regulars, who received orders from Hull to evacuate the post and join him at Detroit. Captain Heald was warned by several scouts and friendly Indians that the large body of savages gathered round the post intended to massacre him and the men and women with him. He felt some misgivings at the intelligence, but not to the degree that others who understood the Indian character did. During the night, he destroyed the liquor, gunpowder, and firearms which he had promised the savages, and then set out for Detroit. While on the way, the Indians attacked him and those under his charge. Among the bravest fighters were the women, but a dreadful massacre followed. One-half of the regulars were killed, all of the militia, and a number of the women and children. The following day Fort Dearborn was laid in ashes.

The
Army of
the
North-
west

The Americans are not often discouraged by misfortune, and ten thousand volunteers now offered themselves for the invasion of Canada. They advanced towards Michigan, under General William Henry Harrison, commanding the army of the Northwest; but there was little discipline among the men, and after several skirmishes with the Indians they went into winter quarters. The troops on the Niagara frontier at this time consisted of the New York militia, and some regulars and recruits from other states, under the command of Stephen Van Rensselaer, who resolved to capture the Queenstown

Heights, overlooking the lower Niagara river. On the morning of October 13, he sent two columns across the river, under charge of his cousin, Colonel Solomon Van Rensselaer. Hardly had they landed when they were fired upon, and the colonel was wounded. Captains Wood and Ogilvie led on the troops, and by a brilliant dash captured the fortress. General Brock with reinforcements attacked the Americans, but he was mortally wounded and his men were driven back.

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The Americans proceeded now to intrench themselves. The second division, consisting of twelve hundred men on the other side of the river, was sent for, and, had they moved promptly, a decisive victory must have followed; but the uproar of battle filled them with terror. They declared that they had enlisted to fight for the defense of the state, but refused to go out of it. Lieutenant-Colonel Winfield Scott had crossed the Niagara river and taken command of the brigade, which was twice attacked by the British and Indians, who were repulsed. More reinforcements, however, arrived for the enemy, and Scott was driven back to the river. There were no boats to take the troops across, and, being surrounded, they were compelled to surrender. All this time, the force of over a thousand New York militia stood idly looking on. General Van Rensselaer was so exasperated that he threw up his command and was succeeded by General Alexander Smyth, of Virginia. This officer was a conceited numskull, who soon made himself the laughing-stock of the army. He issued several bombastic proclamations, and, on the 28th of November, sent a company across from Black Rock, near Buffalo. Instead of supporting them, he stupidly withdrew the troops to the American shore. Some days later, he attempted another crossing, but soon ordered the troops to return and go into winter-quarters. The militia were on the point of rebelling, when Smyth was deprived of his command. This ended the disgraceful land operations in the year 1812.

Battle of
Queens-
town
Heights

In the autumn of this year, the Democratic President and Vice-President offered themselves as candidates for re-election. Madison received one hundred and twenty-eight electoral votes against eighty-nine cast for De Witt Clinton. Elbridge Gerry, at the same time, defeated Jared Ingersoll for the Vice-Presidency. The second inauguration of Madison took place under sad and discouraging circumstances. The country was not only in the midst

Re-elec-
tion of
Madison

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of a troublesome war, but the air was full of reports of disaster. Chief Justice Marshall administered the oath to the President in the presence of the two houses of Congress. The day was bright with sunshine, but all felt the solemnity of the hour. The display of the militia was the feature of the occasion.

The patriot heart may well feel elated in turning from the dismal failures on the land to the work of our gallant little navy on the ocean. Some of the naval exploits of the time were almost incredible, and added a glory to the name of the Yankee tars which will last forever.

Brilliant
Work by
Our
Navy

Hardly was war declared, when a courier from Washington rode with all haste to New York with the news. While the flanks of the steed were still heaving, Captain John Rodgers in the forty-four-gun frigate *President*, Captain Stephen Decatur in the forty-four-gun frigate *United States*, Captain John Smith in the thirty-six-gun frigate *Congress*, Master-Commandant James Lawrence in the eighteen-gun sloop-of-war *Hornet*, and Lieutenant Arthur Sinclair in the eighteen-gun brig *Argus*, hoisted sail and stood down the Narrows. Their purpose was to intercept a fleet of one hundred Jamaica merchantmen, which was expected to pass near our coast about that time.

Exploits
of the
Essex

On the morning of June 23, the British frigate *Belvidera* was sighted and Captain Rodgers fired the first gun of the war at her. On the fourth round, one of the *President's* guns burst, killing and wounding sixteen men, Captain Rodgers being among those injured. The enemy's frigate succeeded in escaping and the merchantmen were not discovered. Captain David Porter, father of Admiral David Dixon Porter, who rendered such conspicuous service in the War for the Union, was captain of the *Essex* and sailed from New York, about two weeks after the departure of the squadron already named. On the 11th of July, after a brisk engagement, he captured the *Minerva*, convoying a fleet of merchantmen, and on the 13th of August, in a battle of scarcely ten minutes, he compelled the *Alert* to surrender. When the prisoners were removed to the *Essex*, they outnumbered the American crew by more than two to one. Among them were many desperate men, who soon formed a plot to recapture the ship and run it into Halifax.

Captain Porter was one of the best officers in the navy and a strict disciplinarian. He frequently drilled his men in "fighting fire,"

the most dreaded enemy on the sea. Frequently in the middle of the night the startling cry brought the crew stumbling from their quarters, and occasionally he started a fire in the hatches to make the alarm as nearly real as possible.

Among the midshipmen sailing with Captain Porter was a plucky lad only eleven years old. He was lying in his hammock near midnight, when the leader in the plot, pistol in hand, tip-toed to his side and peered over to see whether the boy was asleep. The little fellow kept his eyes closed and deceived the ruffian into the belief that he was slumbering soundly, but hardly was the man's back turned, when the midshipman slipped noiselessly out of his hammock and stole into the cabin, where he told Captain Porter what was going on. On the instant that officer roared "Fire!" and rushed into the berth-deck. The well-trained crew instantly responded to the call and, fully armed, gathered at the main hatch. In a few minutes the plotters were secured and all danger was past. The name of the young midshipman who thus saved the *Essex* was David Glasgow Farragut. In a two months' cruise the *Essex* took nine prizes and recaptured five American privateers and merchantmen.

Sailors are proverbially superstitious, and it was not long before the belief was as general as it was unshakable that the grand old frigate *Constitution* was the luckiest ship in the American navy. A history of the noble vessel seems almost to justify this belief. It will be remembered that she carried forty-four guns. She was finished in 1798, and the French soon gained a taste of her prowess. Some of her escapes approached the marvelous, but one secret of her good fortune was that she was always commanded by the most consummate seamen in the navy. She left Annapolis, on the 12th of July, 1812, under command of Captain Isaac Hull, nephew of the disgraced commander at Detroit. A few days later she sighted the British squadron under Captain Broke, who was eagerly hunting for game. The only hope of Hull was to keep out of reach of this overwhelming force, but escape seemed impossible, since there was not a breath of air stirring: Hull lowered his boats, filled with sturdy seamen, who took such position that while at work the hull of the *Constitution* shut off the view of the enemy. The latter were dumfounded at the sight of the American frigate moving away from them, when the sails were flapping idly against their own masts and his ships were motionless. It was a long time before the explana-

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Bravery
of Mid-
shipman
Farragut

The
Grand
Old Con-
stitution

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tion of the mystery dawned upon the British, but as soon as they fathomed it they resorted to the same means.

This remarkable pursuit continued all day and night, with the enemy slowly but surely gaining. When daylight dawned, the five ships of the British squadron were seen to be closer than before, and were straining every nerve to overhaul the *Constitution*, which was



"THE LITTLE FELLOW KEPT HIS EYES CLOSED"

A Fortu-
nate
Escape

toiling desperately to keep beyond reach. By the middle of the afternoon, only three or four miles separated pursuer and pursued, and, despite their utmost exertions, the Americans could not prevent the steady lessening of the distance. But the elements now came to the relief of the imperiled *Constitution*. The wind rose, and such a violent storm broke that she shook the foam from her bows and scudded away at the rate of eleven knots an hour. When daylight came again, the intervening space had so increased that the enemy gave up the chase, which had continued for sixty-four hours, and was the most remarkable occurrence of the war.

Captain Hull's ambition above everything else was to meet the *Guerriere* (*gāre-e-āre'*), commanded by Captain James R. Dacres. These two officers had become quite intimate friends, when England and the United States were at peace, though each was devotedly attached to his own country. As signs of approaching war increased, the two held warm arguments over the prowess of their respective countrymen. Finally, in one of these discussions, Dacres offered to wager Hull a new hat that if they ever had an encounter, the American would strike his flag. Hull eagerly accepted the challenge, and the two were now looking for each other to decide the wager.

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The
Guer-
riere and
the Con-
stitution

On the afternoon of August 19, the frigates met not far from Cape Race. The *Guerriere* was the first to fire, but Hull paid no attention, crowding all sail to place himself alongside the enemy, who was not unwilling to have a fair yard-arm to yard-arm fight. As the space decreased, Dacres kept firing at the *Constitution* and inflicted considerable damage. The American officers grew impatient and Lieutenant Morris, second in command, several times asked permission to return the fire, but Hull shook his head. "Not yet," he replied, keenly watching the progress of the pursuit, nor would he consent until the two vessels were quite close, when he thundered the order and a broadside was delivered from the guns doubly charged with round and grape shot.*

A Splen-
did
Fight

The effect was appalling. The air over the British frigate was darkened with splinters, some of which were hurled as high as the mizzen-top, while the cheers of the enemy were changed to shrieks of agony. The frigates were now fighting at pistol-shot. After fifteen minutes, the mizzen-mast of the *Guerriere* had been shot away, her main-yard was in slings, and her hull, sails, spars, and rigging were torn to pieces. Hull maneuvered with wonderful skill, but the rough sea would not permit either to board. In each of the *Constitution's* main-tops were six marines, loading muskets as fast as they could and passing them to a seventh, the best marksman of the group, who took careful aim and fired wherever he saw a head, and

*Lossing relates that, before the engagement, Hull with much difficulty encased the lower part of his portly figure in a pair of white duck trousers, evidently intended to fit a man half his size. When he gave the order to fire, he accompanied it with a gesture so emphatic that the bifurcated garments were separated into two equal parts—a fact of which the gallant officer remained unconscious until after the battle, when, like the *Constitution* itself, he awoke to the necessity of repairing damages.



THE "CONSTITUTION" AND THE "GUERRIERE"

he saw them constantly. One of the sharpshooters shot Dacres in the back and another bullet wounded him in the knee, while his mate fell badly injured. Finally the *Constitution* shook off the *Guerriere* and forged ahead. Just then the main mast of the *Guerriere* fell overboard and she became a helpless wreck, wallowing in the trough of the sea. Seeing that his enemy could make no more resistance, Hull prudently drew off and hastily repaired damages, for there was danger that a British squadron would bear down at any time upon the antagonists. Then, later in the day, the *Constitution* overtook the *Guerriere* and a lieutenant was sent on board to take possession. Dacres was so humiliated that he dallied, refusing to surrender, until the American was about to return and reopen the battle. Then he submitted, and was rowed back to the *Constitution*. As he painfully came up the side, he extended his sword to Hull, who refused to take it and reached out his hand.

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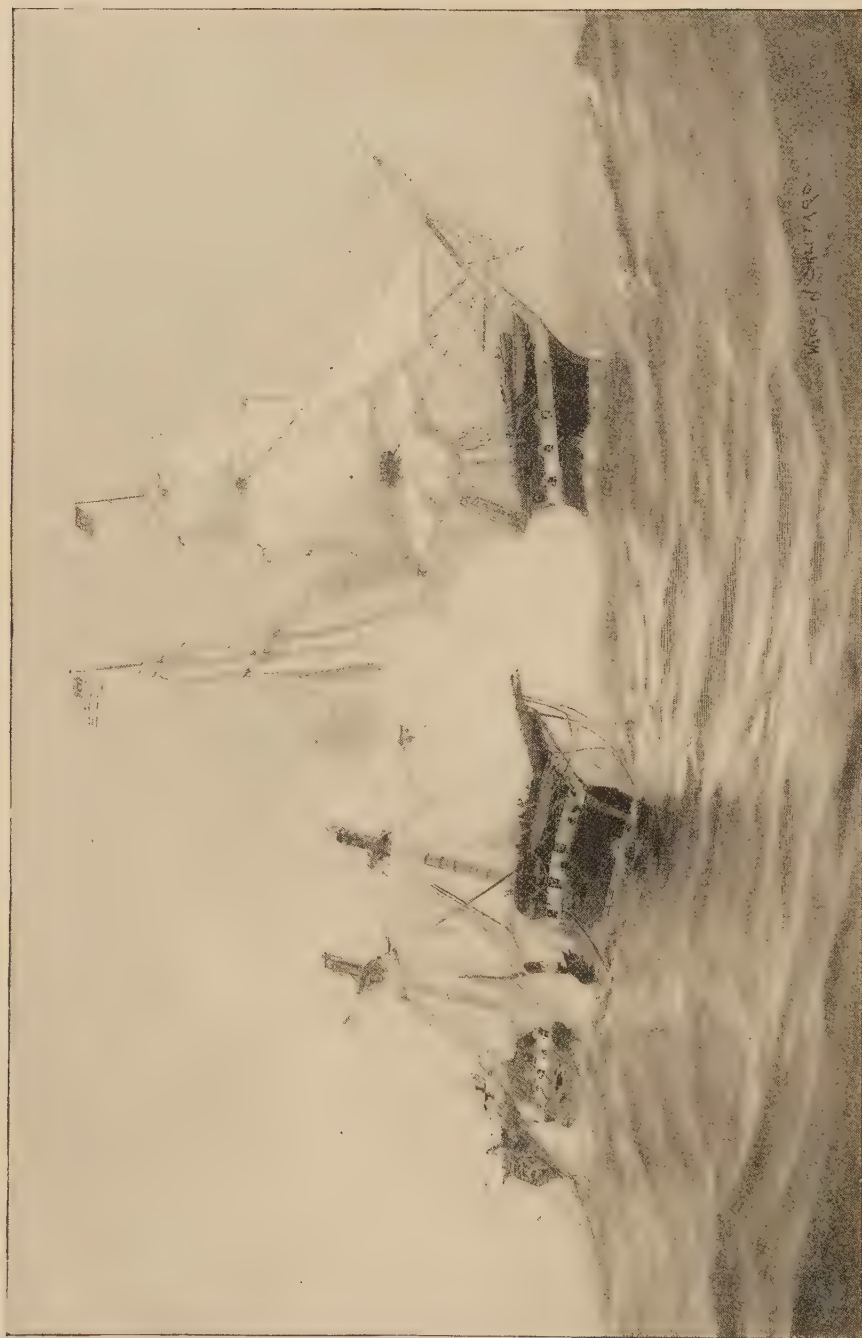
Winning
a Wager

"I don't want your sword, Dacres, but I'll trouble you for that hat," he remarked, and it is safe to assume that the wager was paid.

The *Constitution* carried the news of her own success to Boston, which was her native city. The country was thrilled and Hull was the hero of the hour. Congress awarded him a gold medal and appropriated \$50,000, to be divided as prize money among the officers and crew of the *Constitution*. This was the most brilliant naval victory of the war. It lasted only thirty minutes, during which the enemy had seventy-nine killed and wounded, while the American loss was but seven killed and the same number wounded.

A feeling akin to consternation took possession of England when the news reached that country. The *London Times* said: "It is not merely that one English frigate has been taken, but that it has been taken by a new enemy, an enemy unaccustomed to such triumphs and likely to be rendered insolent and confident by them." And why should not the Americans be confident when the superb victory was quickly followed by others? The American sloop-of-war *Wasp* captured the British brig *Frolic*, off the coast of North Carolina, in less than an hour. It was a horrible battle, in which the enemy had ninety killed and wounded, but three officers and one man remaining unhurt, while only ten were killed and wounded on the *Wasp*. Although Captain Jones of the *Wasp* was captured by a seventy-four-gun ship, together with his prize, Congress awarded him a medal and distributed \$25,000 among his crew.

Dismay
in Eng-
land



Copyright 1896

THE "UNITED STATES" AND THE "MACEDONIAN"

From the Original Painting by Warren Sheppard

The *United States*, one of the forty-four-gun frigates built in 1798, when near the island of Madeira, October 25, 1812, engaged the British frigate *Macedonian*, also of forty-four guns. Captain Stephen Decatur, the American commander, opened the battle at long range and inflicted great damage. After losing thirty-six killed and sixty-eight wounded out of a crew of three hundred, the enemy surrendered. It was another striking proof of the superior marksmanship of the Americans that in this engagement they had but five killed and six wounded. Captain Decatur received his medal and his crew their prize money which had been so well earned.

Captain Hull now generously turned over the command of the *Constitution* to Captain William Bainbridge that he might win glory with her. On December 29, in the West Indies, he encountered the *Java* of thirty-eight guns. The battle lasted two hours, when Bainbridge hauled off for repairs, which were completed in an hour. Then he prepared to attack again, when the *Java* surrendered. She had lost about one hundred killed and two hundred wounded, among the killed being her commander, while the total loss of the *Constitution* was but thirty-four. It was this battle which gave the name of "Old Ironsides" to the *Constitution*. The *Java* was so shattered that it was impossible to take her into port, and she was blown up.

Thus, within the space of five months, four decisive victories were won by the American navy. Bainbridge received the freedom of the city from New York and from Albany, each complimentary document being presented in a gold box. Philadelphia gave to the gallant officer a service of plate, and Congress awarded \$50,000 to him and his crew.

The following extract from the *London Times*, of March 20, 1813, will show what a severe blow the loss of the *Java* was to the pride of England. The great journal thus exclaims:

"The public will learn with sentiments which we shall not presume to anticipate that a third British frigate has struck to an American. . . . This is an occurrence that calls for serious reflection; this and the facts stated in our paper of yesterday, that Lloyd's list contains notices of upward of five hundred British vessels captured in seven months by the Americans; five hundred merchantmen and three frigates! Can these statements be true? And can the English people hear them unmoved? Anyone who had predicted such a result of an American war this time last year would

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Career of
the Con-
stitution

Extract
from the
London
Times

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have been treated as a madman or a traitor. He would have been told, if his opponents had condescended to argue with him, that long ere seven months had elapsed the American flag would have been swept from the seas, the contemptible navy of the United States annihilated, and their marine arsenals rendered a heap of ruins. Yet down to this moment not a single American frigate has struck her flag."

Cause of
the
Land
Failures

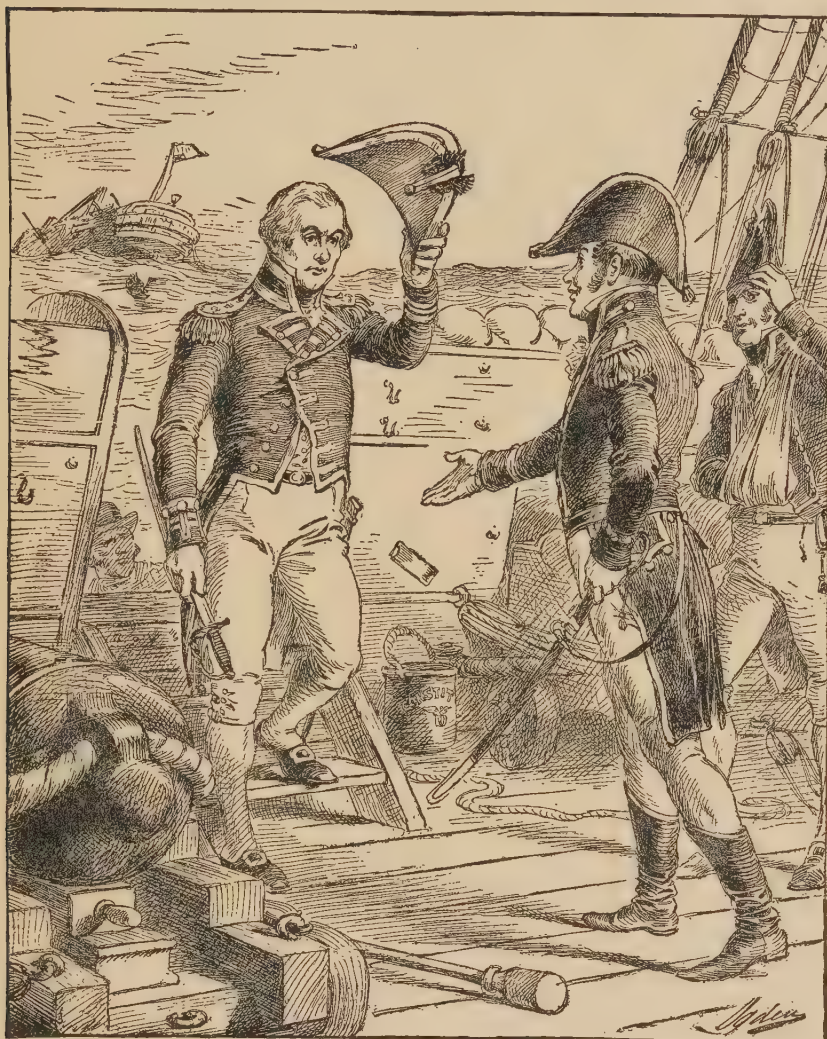
Now it is proper here to answer several questions, which must have presented themselves to the reader. The first is: why were the operations of the Americans on land so unsuccessful during the early part of the war? The answer is that, while the soldiers were as brave and competent as any troops in the world, the majority of their leaders were wholly unfitted to command them. More than thirty years had passed since the close of the Revolution. The best officers who helped to win our independence were either dead or so old (General Hull, to wit) as to become incapacitated for duty. Most of their successors were men appointed by political influence, and not fit to be entrusted with command. They moreover quarreled over the questions of rank, blundered in their campaigns, interfered with each other, and failed to rise to the pitch of patriotism which inspired the soldiers themselves. The Secretary of War was himself incompetent, and mismanaged affairs so badly that he was forced to resign, as has been stated, when the crowning disgrace of all, the capture of Washington, was inflicted. Matters improved after a time, for the incompetents were at length weeded out, and men like Scott, Ripley, Brown, and other distinguished and able officers were brought forward.

Cause of
the
Success
on the
Ocean

The reverse of all this prevailed in the navy. Not only were the officers brave, patriotic, and skillful, but their crews were made up of the sturdiest specimens of American manhood, who were disciplined to the highest possible point. They practiced in gunnery until their skill became almost marvelous. They were at the same time skilled in seamanship, and their victories at the beginning of the war gave them a confidence and nerve which carried them through every test in triumph. Then, too, the incentive of the reward in the shape of prize money had its natural result. In short, everything that could add to the *morale* as well as the success of the navy was brought into play. That it should attain the highest point of effectiveness was as certain as that effect must follow cause.

But when all this has been said, another question may be asked. To what was due the repeated defeats of the British frigates? Great Britain was still "mistress of the seas," and her officers and sailors

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THE SURRENDER OF CAPTAIN DACRES

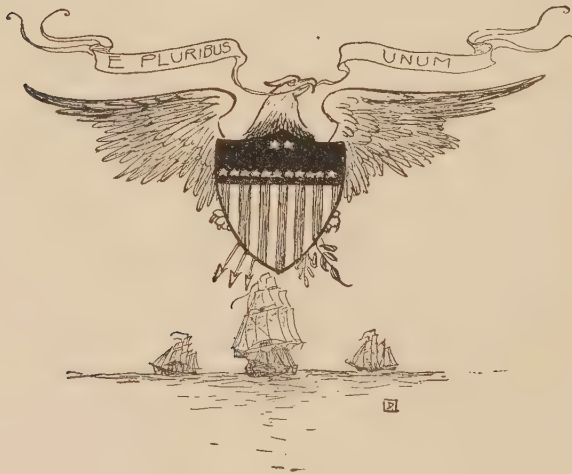
were as brave as any who sailed the ocean. She claimed to be invincible on the deep, and had good reason for the boast. Why then did she suffer so many disastrous defeats at the hands of the Americans?

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Why
England
Failed
on the
Ocean

It would require many pages to answer this question fully, which has been ably done by Mr. Maclay, in his "History of the United States Navy." He gives as a reason for the many British failures the overweening confidence of the English officers. For twenty years they had been waging an easy naval warfare against France, where all discipline was destroyed by the Revolution, so that the saying was common—that, when France launched a new warship, she was simply adding another to the British navy. England, too, had been fighting with the Spaniards, who had so degenerated since the days of their gallant ancestors, that many of their sailors would stand still and be shot down by their own officers during an engagement, rather than climb into the rigging or perform the simplest duty. In short, the English sailor had been gaining so many easy victories that he was spoiled, and, when he came to face the plucky American, eager for a fight, he had a most exaggerated idea of his own prowess. This was a bitter truth which he had to learn, but learn it he did, through disaster, defeat, and humiliation.





CHAPTER IX

MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION—SECOND TERM 1813-1817—WAR OF 1812 (Continued)—EVENTS OF 1813

[*Author's Note:* With Madison's second administration the war in Canada was pressed, though, so far, with indifferent results, for the West was in possession of the British, under Proctor and his ally Tecumseh, and Winchester had surrendered at Frenchtown only to meet the horrors of Indian massacre. The year 1813, however, proved more fortunate to American arms; for besides the gallant defense of Fort Meigs and Fort Stephenson, York (Toronto) was twice captured and looted (though with the loss of Brigadier-General Pike, the discoverer of Pike's Peak), while with Perry's success in the naval engagement on Lake Erie, and Harrison's victory at the battle of the Thames, the Ontario peninsula was overrun and the British driven eastward. As an offset to the British repulse at Sackett's Harbor, the failure of the movement against Montreal, under Wilkinson and Hampton, has, however, to be chronicled, with the results of British naval operations in the Chesapeake, and the victory for the *Shannon*. The year closed to the credit of neither of the combatants. The authorities for the period are those enumerated in the war section of the previous chapter.]



Battle of Lake Erie

At the beginning of 1813 the American army was organized into three divisions: 1, the Army of the North, under General Wade Hampton, which was to act in the country around Lake Champlain; 2, the Army of the Center, under Commander-in-Chief General Henry Dearborn, which was to push operations on the Niagara frontier and Lake Ontario; and 3, the Army of the West, whose commander, General Winchester, was soon superseded by General Harrison. The President was authorized to recruit twenty additional regiments

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Ameri-
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Defeat at
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of infantry at an increase of bounty and pay, to issue treasury notes, and to borrow money, while steps were taken to build four ships-of-the-line, six frigates, and whatever vessels-of-war were needed for the defense of, and for any aggressive operations on, the Great Lakes.

General Harrison set out to recover Michigan, which had been surrendered by the pusillanimous Hull. General Winchester was dispatched to Frenchtown, on the river Raisin, twenty-five miles south of Detroit. He reached the Maumee Rapids, January 10, with eight hundred volunteers, most of whom were Kentuckians. On the 13th, he sent Colonels Allen and Lewis, with a detachment, to engage the British and Indians at Frenchtown. They attacked the enemy on the 18th, Winchester arriving with reinforcements two days late. The British colonel, Henry Proctor, was at Malden, eighteen miles distant, with fifteen hundred English and Indians; and advancing rapidly to Frenchtown, he surprised and defeated the Americans on the 22d. Winchester himself was captured, and was so frightened at the threats of massacre by the red men that he sent orders to Colonel Madison, his successor, to surrender. This was done under a pledge of protection.

Immediately after the surrender Proctor left for Malden, on the pretext that he feared the advance of General Harrison from Lower Sandusky. The Indians attacked the wounded prisoners left behind, massacring a number and torturing many to death. The survivors were taken to Detroit, where, after a time, they were ransomed. "Remember the river Raisin!" afterwards became the war-cry of the Kentuckians.

General Harrison withdrew from the Maumee Rapids upon learning of this disaster, but moved forward again with twelve hundred men and built Fort Meigs on the river, near the present town of Perrysburg. It was well located for receiving reinforcements and supplies from Ohio and Kentucky, for defending the borders of Lake Erie, and for aiding in the recapture of Detroit.

Fort
Meigs
Besieged

On the 26th of April, Proctor, with two thousand regulars, militia, and Indians, laid siege to the post, threatening to turn over the prisoners to the Indians in case of resistance. Harrison returned a defiant answer to the demand, and General Green Clay Smith hastened to his relief with over a thousand Kentuckians. The besiegers were assailed with great gallantry, the garrison assisting, but a blunder by Colonel Dudley led to his being cut off and captured with his detach-

ment. Proctor, however, was so crippled that he withdrew. Many of the Indians now deserted, despite the pleading of the Shawnee chief Tecumseh. General Harrison turned over the command to General Smith and returned to Kentucky for reinforcements. On the 21st of July, Proctor and Tecumseh with five thousand British and Indians again besieged Fort Meigs. Failing to accomplish anything, Proctor drew off with about half the force, leaving Tecumseh, who was his superior in generalship, to see what he could do. With his depleted division, Proctor advanced upon Fort Stephenson, where Fremont now stands. This post was commanded by a gallant young American officer named Croghan.

Major George Croghan, of the regular army, was barely twenty-one years old and had under him a garrison of one hundred and sixty men. Proctor ordered him to surrender, accompanying the demand with a threat like that he had used before, namely, that, in case of refusal, Croghan and his men would be massacred by his Indian allies. Croghan spiritedly replied that the contingency was impossible, since, should the fort surrender, there would not be left any men to massacre.

This sounded very much like a refusal, and Proctor opened a bombardment. Croghan had only one small cannon, which was crammed with slugs and scraps of iron. It was pointed so as to rake the ditch, which was soon swarming with assailants. The weapon, which was masked, was discharged among them at the right moment and spread death and destruction all around. The weapon was again loaded and a second column received a similar warm reception. At the same time, a hot fire of musketry was kept up, and Colonel Proctor, fearing the approach of General Harrison, gave up the siege and withdrew. The British lost, in killed and wounded, one hundred and twenty men, while only one man of the garrison was killed and several wounded. The brilliant exploit of Major Croghan shone like a star of hope amid the gloom and discouragement of disaster. For his heroism he was presented with a handsome sword by the ladies of Chillicothe, Ohio, and Congress voted him the thanks of the nation. A score of years later he was awarded a gold medal for his skill and bravery. The defeat of the British filled Tecumseh with disgust, and the English gave up the hope of capturing these western posts until they should secure the mastery of Lake Erie.

It was now decided to fit out a squadron on Lake Ontario to resist

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Failure
of the
Siege

Gallant
Defense
of Fort
Stephenson



DEATH OF GENERAL PIKE

the British vessels, and also to carry American troops to any point that might need defense. The chief American port on the lakes was Sackett's Harbor. This was made a naval depot, and, during the closing months of 1812 and the beginning of 1813, Commodore Chauncey bent every energy toward constructing and launching a squadron to operate on Lake Ontario. Towards the close of April, General Dearborn crossed the lake with seventeen hundred men, with the intention of attacking York (Toronto), the capital of Upper Canada, and the chief depot of the British posts in the west. A landing was made before York on the 27th of the month under a hot fire, but the Americans pushed on under the lead of Brigadier-General Zebulon Pike, and the enemy were driven from their works. The Americans were still pressing towards the main works when the magazine of the fort blew up. Two hundred Americans were killed or wounded, among the mortally hurt being Brigadier-General Pike, who was carried on board the commodore's vessel. There the flag which had floated above the fort of York was folded under his head, and he thus died the death of a hero. General Dearborn was an invalid, and remained with the fleet during the action. He now went ashore, and, after the surrender of York, assumed the command. The majority of the British troops fled so hastily that they left their baggage behind. After landing some troops at Niagara, the fleet returned to Sackett's Harbor. Just before this Dearborn and his men landed near the mouth of the Niagara river, where they waited until Commodore Chauncey joined them with reinforcements, when Fort George, the British post at Niagara, was captured.

It will be seen that these operations at the western end of the lake left Sackett's Harbor almost unprotected, whereupon Sir James Yeo, the British admiral, and General Prevost advanced against it. Colonel Electus Backus, the commandant, appealed to General Jacob Brown, a militia officer in the neighborhood, who hurriedly gathered a small force which was added to the garrison. A body of Indians was landed at night so as to attack the Americans in the rear, and the main assault was made on the 29th of May. The militia broke, but the regulars and volunteers held their ground until driven into the log barracks. General Brown (whose bravery and skill finally placed him in supreme command of the American army) succeeded in rallying some of the militia and made a feint to seize the enemy's

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The
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Lake
Ontario

Capture
of York
(To-
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Defeat of
General
Prevost

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boats. Afraid of having his retreat cut off, General Prevost fled precipitately, leaving three hundred dead or wounded on the field. The Americans also suffered severely. The killed and wounded numbered one hundred and thirty, Colonels Mills and Backus being among the slain.

The Americans, under Generals Chandler and Winder, pursued some of the enemy who fled to Burlington Heights (Hamilton) at the western end of Lake Ontario. In a spirited engagement forty miles west of Fort George, both the American generals were captured. Sir James Yeo soon appearing with the British fleet, the Americans fell back upon the main army. Several minor conflicts followed, unfavorable to the American arms, at Stony Creek and at Beaver Dams, where General Boerstler was repulsed, the Canadians being advised by a woman of the intended attack. A second descent upon York by the American fleet was a good set-off for these losses.

Fighting
in
Canada

General Dearborn, at the head of the army, had never led them in person, and lost a good chance of capturing Montreal. His inefficiency caused his supersedure in June by General Wilkinson, who reached Sackett's Harbor on the 1st of August, and arranged to re-invade Canada and attack Montreal with eight thousand men. Three months were consumed in preparation, during which time the enemy fortified every important point on the St. Lawrence and were fully ready when, on the 5th of November, the flotilla of five hundred barges set sail. Meeting with determined resistance, General Brown landed with a body of soldiers, who marched in advance of the boats and gallantly attempted to drive the enemy from his positions along the river. At Williamsburg, on the 10th, a large British force was defeated and the stream opened for the passage of the flotilla. An obstinate battle, known as that of Chrysler's Field, was fought the next day, each side losing heavily and each claiming a victory. An equally obstinate engagement also took place at Chateauguay in Lower Canada, in which General Hampton's division was defeated by a body of Canadian Voltiguers. At St. Regis, General Wilkinson expected Hampton to co-operate with him. But Hampton was sick, and his troops, lacking supplies, had fallen back upon Plattsburg, in the hope that he could keep open his communications with the St. Lawrence. This retreat caused Wilkinson to withdraw also, and the movement was abandoned for the time. The chief occupa-

tion of Hampton, Wilkinson, and Armstrong for some weeks in the ensuing winter was quarreling among themselves.

The war increased in fierceness. A British squadron, under Admiral Cockburn, sailed up Delaware Bay and burned every merchant vessel within reach. Lewiston was bombarded because the people would not sell food to the enemy. Cockburn plundered even the private houses along the Chesapeake and sacked Frenchtown, Havrede-Grace, Fredericktown, Georgetown, and other places. New England received more consideration, for it was known that she was opposed to the war from the beginning.

The great successes, as heretofore, were confined to the high seas. On the 24th of February, Captain James Lawrence, of the sloop-of-war *Hornet*, fought such a vicious battle with the British brig-of-war *Peacock* that at the end of fifteen minutes the latter sank so suddenly that she carried down several of the *Hornet's* crew that had gone on board in answer to her signals of distress. Captain Lawrence treated his prisoners with so much kindness that they sent him a letter of thanks, while Congress gave him the command of the frigate *Chesapeake*.

The British frigate *Shannon*, Captain Philip Bowes Vere Broke, was cruising off the New England coast, and challenged Lawrence to come out and fight him. Lawrence committed the fatal mistake of accepting the challenge. The *Chesapeake* was undergoing repairs, her crew consisting mainly of new men, undisciplined and in a mutinous state, because they had not received the share of prize money due them. Still further, many of them were under the influence of liquor, when the *Chesapeake* sailed gallantly down the harbor to meet a frigate of fine trim, her crew in a high state of discipline, and her commander and officers among the best in the British service.

There were thousands of people with glasses, crowding the hills, while hundreds of others followed in pleasure-craft to see the proud Britain lower his colors. It was late in the afternoon of the soft, beautiful first day of summer, and the cheers of the multitude were wafted across the heaving waters and inspired the Americans, who had not a doubt of victory.

Lawrence promptly began the attack, and the battle was fought at close quarters. In the space of a few minutes, nearly all the American officers were killed or wounded and the sails of the *Chesapeake's* rigging became entangled. In maneuvering for position, she backed

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Outrages by the Invaders

The Shannon and the Chesapeake



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From the Original Drawing by H. A. Ogden

"DON'T GIVE UP THE SHIP"

against the *Shannon* and the British seamen swarmed over the sides of the American, just as Lawrence fell mortally wounded and was carried below.

The pain from the surgeon's knife could not equal the hero's agony of anxiety over the issue of the battle. "Keep the guns going!" he shouted; "fight till she strikes! Don't give up the ship!"

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THE "CHESAPEAKE" AND THE "SHANNON"

Captain Broke led his boarders, and, in the furious struggle was frightfully wounded by a blow from a cutlass that laid his brain open. The brave Americans were overpowered, and the engagement was over in fifteen minutes. The *Chesapeake* lost forty-eight killed and ninety-eight wounded, while the enemy had but twenty-three killed and fifty-six wounded. Lawrence lived for four days, and often in his delirium repeated his cry, "*Don't give up the ship!*" The stirring words became the motto of the American navy. His body was buried at Halifax with the honors of war, some of the British officers acting as pall-bearers, for all acknowledged the worth and chivalrous bravery of the young hero.

"Don't
Give up
the
Ship"

On the same day of the capture of the *Chesapeake*, Captain Decatur in command of the *United States*, the *Macedonian*, and the *Hornet*, was forced to take refuge in New London to escape a superior British squadron, and was kept there till the close of the

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war. He made many attempts to get out, and declared that every time he did so traitors on shore warned the enemy by displaying blue lights. This statement naturally caused widespread indignation. The Federalists were called "Blue Lights," and Connecticut has been reproached many times for her unpatriotic course in the war of 1812.

Other
Naval
Exploits

Captain Allen having done some creditable work in the English Channel, with the brig *Argus*, issued a burlesque proclamation declaring the coast of Great Britain in a state of blockade, but the smile left his face when one of the enemy's ships on the 14th of August made him a captive. A short time afterwards, the brig *Enterprise* captured the British *Boxer* off the coast of Maine. This fight was of so fierce a character that both commanders were killed and buried side by side at Portland.

In 1813, Oliver Hazard Perry was appointed to the command of the American naval forces on Lake Erie. He chafed at sight of the British fleet cruising complacently around the lake, and by extraordinary exertions he built a fleet and drilled his men to a high state of efficiency. As soon as he could complete his preparations, he sailed from Put-in-Bay, in command of a squadron of nine vessels, of which the *Lawrence* was the flagship. This squadron carried fifty-five guns, and began a search for Commodore Barclay, who had six vessels and sixty-three guns. They met on the 10th of September at the western end of Lake Erie. The eyes of the sailors kindled, when Perry, while forming his line of battle, ran up a flag displaying the thrilling words of the dead Lawrence,—"*Don't give up the ship!*"

Perry's
Great
Victory
on
Lake
Erie

The enemy concentrated such a destructive fire upon Perry's flagship that at the end of two hours she was in a sinking condition. Leaving her in charge of a lieutenant, Perry sprang into an open boat and ordered the sailors to row him to the *Niagara*, which showed no effects from the battle. The young commander was so fired with the spirit of battle that he stood erect, in full uniform, in the stern of the small boat, as it passed within pistol-shot of the enemy. Inevitably he drew their aim, and the shot whistled so close that some of the sailors declared they would cease rowing unless the commander sat down. His escape was a close one, but he was unharmed, and, boarding the *Niagara*, his flag was immediately hoisted.

While the British squadron was arranging a new line of battle, Perry drove the *Niagara* in among them, delivering broadsides right



BATTLE OF LAKE ERIE—WAR OF 1812

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Oliver
Hazard
Perry

and left. The other ships hurried to his aid, and the fire became so destructive that at the end of fifteen minutes the foe surrendered. The superiority of the American gunnery was on this, as on other occasions, strikingly shown, for, while the British lost two hundred killed and wounded, the American had but twenty-six killed and ninety-six wounded. Six hundred of the enemy were made prisoners. Commodore Barclay went into the battle with one arm and came out with none. This was the first time that a whole British squadron ever surrendered to an enemy. Perry's dispatch to General Harrison announcing the victory was almost as famous as the dying words of Lawrence. It read: "We have met the enemy, and they are ours. Two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop."

Commodore Oliver Hazard Perry, though best known as victor over the British fleet on Lake Erie, at the early age of twenty-eight, had a varied and successful career on the high seas as well as on American inland waters. The son of a naval officer, he was born at Kingston, R. I., became a midshipman at fourteen, and, before he had reached his sixteenth year, had seen service with his father in the West Indies. Four years later he took part in the war with Tripoli, and after he had become lieutenant and taken part in building a fleet of small gunboats he was appointed commander of *The Revenge*, which for a time cruised about on the Atlantic coast. In 1811 Perry was so unfortunate as to lose his ship by wrecking, and thereafter he sought service on the lakes under Commodore Chauncey, and took part in the attack on Fort George, at the mouth of the Niagara river. After this he was engaged in fitting out the squadron on Lake Erie, designed to try the fortunes of war with Barclay's British fleet. For his success he received a vote of Congress, together with a medal, and the rank of captain. Barclay's defeat led to the disastrous battle of the Thames, and the withdrawal of the British from the Ontario peninsula. In the following year, Perry took part in the defense of Baltimore, and in 1815 he commanded the *Java* in the Mediterranean under Decatur. Four years afterwards, he was dispatched in command of a squadron to the Carribbean sea, and while off the Orinoco river he caught yellow fever and died at Trinidad, in August, 1819. Perry's remains were brought home by order of Congress, and were interred at Newport, R. I. Commemorative statues of the gallant hero have been erected at Newport and at Cleveland, Ohio.

Perry's victory on the lake produced a marked effect on the war.

The British general, Proctor, and the American general, Harrison, were anxiously awaiting the news. If Perry had been defeated, Proctor intended to invade Ohio; if he won, Harrison was to invade

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COMMODORE OLIVER HAZARD PERRY

Canada. Accordingly the latter embarked at Sandusky Bay, September 27, and went ashore near Malden. The British retreated to Sandwich, closely followed by the Americans. Proctor fell back to the Thames, where, at the Moravian Town, he halted and prepared

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for battle. On the 5th of October he was attacked by Generals Harrison and Shelby, the latter the hero of King's Mountain, and then governor of Kentucky. The British regulars fought well, but Proctor himself fled in terror and his men were routed. The Indians, under Tecumseh, displayed remarkable steadiness, but when their leader fell they scattered in a panic. The victory was overwhelming



DEATH OF TECUMSEH

Defeat of
the
British

and decisive. Ohio was no longer in peril; the Indian confederacy was destroyed, and all that Hull betrayed was recovered.

Tecumseh had visited the Indians of the south, with whom he desired to form a league against the Americans. The Creeks attacked the settlements, and the militia of the southwest were summoned to their defense. A large number of settlers took refuge in a stockade, designated Fort Mimms, on Lake Tensas, Alabama. One hundred and seventy-five volunteers were sent by Governor Claiborne to defend it. They neglected, however, to use proper precaution, and on the last day of August, when a thousand Creeks swooped down on the place, they found the outer gates open, the arms stacked, and no sentinels in sight. The defenders fought bravely, but hope

Mas-
sacre at
Fort
Mimms

was gone. All the women and children, and every one of the garri-son except twelve men, were massacred.

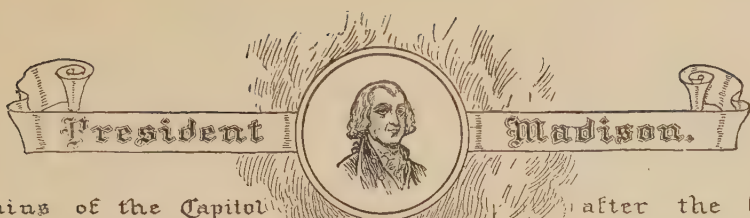
Tecumseh was one of three brothers (triplets) born about the year 1768. One brother never achieved greatness, but the other, The Prophet, became famous. Tecumseh would have been a great man in any age or nation. His eloquence was a notable gift, his courage was unsurpassable, while his military skill was of the highest order. He was made a brigadier-general in the British army, and there were few his superior in ability. He had all the virtues and none of the weaknesses of his race. He never tortured a prisoner or permitted it to be done in his presence. He once dashed his horse on a dead run among a party of his warriors who were maltreating some American prisoners, hurled them right and left, and then turning to General Proctor demanded why he allowed such things. "I cannot restrain your warriors," replied the British officer. Pointing the finger of scorn at him, Tecumseh thundered: "You are not fit to command; go home and put on petticoats!" The plans and drawings which this remarkable Indian drew on a piece of bark, to show the features of the country, were pronounced by English engineers the equal of their own best efforts. He compelled Proctor to fight the battle of the Thames, and, had that officer followed his counsel, the fortunes of the day might have turned out differently. He expressed contempt for Proctor's lack of character, and would have severed all relations with him but for the pleadings of some of his warriors, whom Tecumseh was too honorable to desert. When he entered upon the battle at Moravian Town, he had a pathetic premonition that he would never come out of the engagement alive, and he consequently made disposition of the few effects he possessed, though he fought with his usual intrepidity, until shot down, no one ever knew by whom, though Colonel Richard M. Johnson was credited with the act. The estimation in which Tecumseh's memory is held is shown by the number of places in this country named in his honor. It will be remembered, too, that it formed part of the given name of General Sherman.

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Admir-
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Traits of
Tecumseh ✓



TECUMSEH REBUKES GENERAL PROCTOR



CHAPTER X

MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION—SECOND TERM 1813–1817 (*Continued*)—EVENTS OF 1814–1815

[*Author's Note:* In addition to the renewed invasion of Canada, Madison's second term was marked by Jackson's successful expedition against the Creeks, to repress Indian atrocities in the South incited by Tecumseh. The horrors of this expedition will be found chronicled in the present chapter, together with the results of the operations during 1814, in Canada. The latter include the failure of the British attack on Chippewa, and the American successes at Plattsburg and on Lake Champlain, with the incidents of the hotly contested six hours' battle of Lundy's Lane, which brought the war in Canada practically to a close. On the sea, many daring naval engagements brought honor to the Stars and Stripes, in addition to the glory won over British intrepidity at New Orleans. The successes of the year have, however, to be discounted by the humiliating capture of the city of Washington, with its attendant British vandalism. On December 14, 1814, the Treaty of Ghent terminated the protracted struggle, in a peace which was as inglorious as the war itself; for nothing was settled by it; nor, on either side, was there anything surrendered. Comparatively more gratifying, in Decatur's humbling of the Barbary States, were the issues of the war with Algiers, which carried the whole country with it. That, at least, showed some definite results, in putting an end to the tributes extorted by pirates, and in securing, with the release of American captives, a money payment. The authorities for the period, besides the standard histories and the monographs already mentioned, are: J. Q. Adams' *Memoirs*; John Randolph's *Letters*; and C. J. Ingersoll's "Historical Sketch of the Second War."]

Tecumseh



TENNESSEE voted three hundred thousand dollars and gave General Andrew Jackson five thousand men with which to punish the Creeks. Among the volunteers who served under "Old Hickory," as he was familiarly called, were Sam Houston, who was afterwards famous in the Texan war for independence, and Colonel Davy Crockett, the eccentric member of Congress from Tennessee, who perished at the Alamo in 1836. Jackson determined to show no mercy to those that

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Crushing
Defeat of
the
Indians

had shone none to the defenseless white people. He hunted down the Indians and finally brought them to bay at Talluschatches, now Jacksonville, Ala., where the fight was to the death and wholly without quarter on either side. Every one of the warriors, numbering about two hundred, was killed, while eighty-four women and children were made prisoners. Jackson still pressed the savages to the wall, and they made their final stand at the Great Horseshoe Bend of the Tallapoosa river (Tohopeka), in the present State of Alabama. There close upon a thousand warriors were surrounded on the 27th of March, 1814. In the terrific battle that ensued, six hundred were killed and the remainder put to flight.

Jackson was anxious to kill or capture Wethersford, the half-breed who led the Creeks at the massacre of Fort Mimms. He had not been either shot or taken prisoner. While Jackson was in his tent, a few hours after the battle, a chief boldly stalked in and stood before him.

“I am Wethersford,” said he; “I am in your power; do as you please with me; I have done the white people all the harm I could, but I can do no more; my voice cannot animate the dead; when they lived I never asked for peace, but they are gone, and I ask it now for my people and myself.”

Although the half-breed was a vicious miscreant with none of the redeeming qualities of Tecumseh, his conqueror could not refuse to accept his surrender. Peace was made on the terms of the whites.

War
Meas-
ures of
the
Govern-
ment

The year 1814 opened with foreboding to the Americans. Napoleon, who had threatened to “disturb the equilibrium of the universe” by his amazing conquests, was crushed at last, and soon England, it was thought, would be ready to launch her battle-scarred veterans against us. The struggle promised to assume huge proportions, but, though New England was still disaffected, the general government addressed itself to the task before it with an unshakable faith in the patriotism as well as in the prowess of her people. The President was empowered to borrow twenty-five million dollars and to issue treasury notes to the extent of five millions. It was ordered, moreover, that the regular army should be increased to sixty-six thousand men, while a bounty was offered for each recruit, and the pay, rations, and clothing of the troops were arranged on a liberal scale.

Armstrong, the Secretary of War, was quick-tempered and obstinate, and still clung to his favorite scheme of invading Canada.



WETHERSFORD BEFORE JACKSON

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—
THE
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AND THE
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TION
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Invasion
of
Canada

This made the Niagara frontier the principal scene of land operations. General Wilkinson, however, was so slow that nearly half the year passed before he was ready to take the offensive. On the 3d of July, Generals Scott, Ripley, and Brown, with three thousand men, crossed the Niagara river from Black Rock to Fort Erie. These three men were each excellent officers. Brown, by merit alone, had won the place of major-general, and, as has been stated, he became commander-in-chief of the United States army, holding the office until 1828, winning a gold medal and the thanks of Congress, and the honor of having Brownsville, New York, named for him. The garrison of two hundred British at Fort Erie surrendered on the approach of Brown's division without offering battle. Brown turned and pursued a British corps of observation down the river and came near capturing it. He then withdrew across Street's creek, where he was speedily joined by the remainder of the troops. Shortly after, in the dusk of the evening, the British made an attack and a severe engagement followed. The enemy were routed with the loss of more than five hundred men, while the Americans lost about two-thirds of that number. The Indian allies of the British were so frightened by their rough handling that they deserted in a body. Brown now prepared to attack Kingston and asked Commodore Chauncey to co-operate with his fleet, but Chauncey refused, and since nothing could be done without his aid, Brown was forced to withdraw.

Battle
of
Lundy's
Lane

General Scott, who commanded the American right, was ordered forward, and late on the afternoon of July 25, reached an open space to the south of Lundy's Lane, whose course lay at right angles to the river. There he was confronted by the British army under General Riall, holding a fortified position and within sight of Niagara Falls. Had any one of the "political generals" been in Scott's place, he would have scrambled back again as fast as he could, but the grim soldier was made of different stuff. He determined to hold his ground until the main army arrived. He not only did that, but in the fight which began almost immediately he maneuvered and fought with consummate skill. He took General Riall and his staff prisoners, though they managed to escape in the confusion. General Brown heard the firing and hurried forward, arriving within an hour. He noticed at once a battery of seven guns doing destructive work from a hill near the enemy's center. Victory was impossible until



ESCAPE OF WETHERSFORD.

that was captured or silenced. Calling Colonel James Miller to his side, he pointed to the hill and said in his brisk, military fashion:

"Colonel, take your regiment and capture that battery!"

"I'll try," was the response, and the colonel hurried away to execute the difficult order. By this time it was so dark that Miller and his three hundred men were able to steal close to the battery, screened by a fence, without being detected. Peering through the fence the gunners were seen with lighted matches in hand. The Americans silently thrust their guns between the rails, fired, and every gunner fell. Then leaping the fence, the battery was captured in a twinkling. Three desperate attempts to retake it were repulsed, General Drummond being wounded in the last charge. Victory hinged now upon the possession of this battery. The British, failing to regain it, withdrew from the field, with a loss in killed and wounded of eight hundred and seventy-eight men. The Americans suffered in killed and wounded and missing a loss of eight hundred. The engagement lasted far into the night.

Lundy's Lane was the severest battle of the war. One-fifth of the men engaged were either killed or wounded. General Scott was hurt so seriously that he did not recover until after the war closed. Brown was also wounded, though not dangerously. General Ripley assumed command, and fell back upon Fort Erie, abandoning the battery captured by Colonel Miller. His course was so unsatisfactory that he was superseded by General E. P. Gaines.

Having received reinforcements General Drummond invested Fort Erie. He attacked it on the night of August 14, but was defeated with severe loss. A cannonade was maintained by each force for several days, during which General Gaines was severely wounded. Brown had not yet recovered from his hurts, but he resumed command. A sortie was made September 17, and the advance works of the enemy were captured. News of reinforcements approaching for the Americans so frightened the British that they fell back to Fort George at the mouth of the Niagara river. Fort Erie was thereupon evacuated by the Americans, November 5, and, destroying the works, the American force crossed the Niagara and went into winter-quarters at Ontario and Black Rock. No further military operations took place between Lakes Erie and Ontario.

The Army of the North remained through the winter of 1813-14 at French Mills, which afterwards received the name of Fort Cov-

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Gallant
Exploit
of Colonel
Miller

Other
Engage-
ments

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British
Invasion
of the
United
States

Battle
of Lake
Cham-
plain

ington. General Wilkinson invaded Canada from Plattsburg in March. In an attack upon a British force on the river La Colle, he was driven back with severe loss. He had done so little previous to this that he was now superseded by General Izard. It was Izard who marched to the help of General Brown at Fort Erie, a movement which uncovered Plattsburg. The British prepared to attack it by land, and to capture or destroy the American flotilla on Lake Champlain.

Sir George Prevost (*prē-vō'*), with fourteen thousand veterans, invaded the United States on the 3d of September. On the 6th this strong force was at Plattsburg, on the northern bank of the Saranac river, near Lake Champlain. The New York and Vermont militia, under General Macomb, crossed to the south side of the Saranac and prepared to contest the passage of the river. The troops, however, lacked the discipline of their foes, but were fully as brave and resolute. Tearing up the planks of the bridges, they built a series of breastworks, from behind which they repeatedly repelled the advance of the enemy.

The British fleet, under Commodore Downie, appeared off the harbor of Plattsburg, September 11. The American squadron, under Commodore Macdonough, had eighty-six guns and eight hundred and twenty men, while the enemy had ninety-five guns and more than a thousand men. When Macdonough had cleared for action, he knelt upon the deck of the *Saratoga*, and with his chief officers grouped around him, humbly asked God to aid him in the battle that was about to open. The engagement had hardly begun, when a shot from the enemy knocked a hen-coop on the *Saratoga* to splinters, releasing a young gamecock which was the pet of the sailors. The bird flew upon a gun-slide, where he flapped his wings and crowed lustily. Sailors are superstitious, and they accepted this as an omen of victory. The battle lasted for more than two hours and was a sanguinary affair. The British Commodore Downie was killed and all his ships were either sunk or captured. When the firing ceased, there was not a mast uninjured in either squadron. Prevost was so alarmed at this crushing disaster that he retreated during the night, leaving behind his camp equipage, provisions, intrenching tools, together with his sick and wounded. The British attempt to invade the United States was no more successful than our efforts to invade Canada.

Previous to this inspiring victory, the crowning humiliation had come to the American arms. The Government learned in April of Napoleon's abdication and that thousands of the released English veterans would be sent to this country. Admiral Cockburn reappeared in Lynn Haven bay early in March, with a strong naval force

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COMMODORE MACDONOUGH'S PRAYER BEFORE BATTLE

to carry out the instructions of Admiral Cochrane, to devastate and ravage the seaport towns, but no steps were taken to put the national capital in a state of defense. Fort Washington, on the Maryland side of the Potomac, a few miles below the city, could offer some resistance to the passage of ships, but there was almost an unob-

Outrages
by the
Enemy

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The
Defenses
of Wash-
ington

structed route through Maryland from the Chesapeake. The President received word on the 1st of July that a fleet of transports with a large force was about to leave Bermuda, bound to some port of the United States, probably on the Potomac. The District of Columbia formed a part of the fourth military district, in which the effective troops, under General Winder, numbered about two thousand, scattered over widely separated points, some as far away as Norfolk. A company of the marines was at the barracks in Washington and a company of artillery in Fort Washington. General Winder warned the Government that imminent peril threatened and asked for troops with which to meet it, but it seemed impossible to convince the authorities that he was right or that any circumstances could arise that would place the capital in peril. The time quickly came, however, when the danger appeared at the very doors. Then the frightened Secretary of War put General Winder at the head of fifteen thousand militia and directed him to do whatever he thought best to save the city. Winder did little. The militia were scattered here and there, and when it became known that a large land and naval force had appeared in Chesapeake bay, only a small body of men were at hand to checkmate the movement, and General Winder had slight confidence in them.

Commodore Barney, with an armed schooner and thirteen barges, had been driven out of Chesapeake bay and blockaded. He ran up the Patuxent, where he could not be followed, but the enemy landed five thousand regulars, marines, and negroes, to capture or destroy his vessels. Winder found himself with five hundred regulars and two thousand undisciplined militia, with which he took up a strong position at Bladensburg and awaited the enemy's advance. The British came on without opposition, boasting that they would dine in Washington on the morrow. When they had reached Marlborough, Commodore Barney burned his fleet and hurried to Washington. The approach to Bladensburg was by a bridge, which was defended by artillery taken from Barney's fleet and handled by him and his sailors. There were six hundred of them, and no men ever fought with great bravery. The militia fled, but the sailors stood their ground and drove back the enemy again and again, until flanked and overwhelmed, they were forced to surrender. General Ross so admired the bravery of the "blue-jackets" that he paroled Barney on the spot.

Bravery
of
the Blue
Jackets

The defeated Americans, obeying orders, gathered on the heights near Washington, and there a body of Virginia militia joined them. Winder knew that these men would not stand fire, and he retreated with them to Georgetown. Meanwhile, the President, the heads of the departments, and many of the citizens had left the city, which was entered by General Ross, just as night was closing in, with his advance guard of eight hundred men. He offered to spare the capital for a ransom, but there was no one to pay it, and the torch was applied. The capitol, the President’s house, the treasury buildings, the arsenal and barracks were fired—indeed, the only one of the public buildings saved was the patent office. Several private houses were plundered and others burned. To prevent the public vessels and other government property at the Navy Yard from falling into the hands of the enemy, they were set on fire by Commodore Kinzey. The total value of the property destroyed either by our own people or by the invaders has been estimated at two million dollars, besides which many things thus lost were beyond value, and could not be replaced. It was an act of vandalism on the part of the British, for which they were condemned by their more right-minded countrymen. Their leading journal said: “Willingly would we throw a veil of oblivion over our transactions at Washington. The Cossacks spared Paris, but we spared not the capital of America.”

The British remained in the neighborhood of the city until the following night, when they withdrew and re-embarked on the 30th at St. Benedict. General Ross was much elated at his success and announced that he would spend the winter in Baltimore. He landed, with some eight thousand troops, on the 12th of September, at North Point, within fourteen miles of Baltimore, and a part of the fleet ascended the Patapsco to bombard Fort McHenry. But Baltimore was wiser than Washington and did not wait the arrival of the enemy before making preparations for the city’s defense. Ross was riding at the head of his men, with Admiral Cockburn, the two chatting gayly, when the bullet of a sharpshooter mortally wounded him, and he died a few minutes later in the arms of an aide-de-camp. Colonel Brooke assumed command and repelled the advance of the Americans. The British bivouacked on the field that night and resumed their approach to the city on the morrow.

Fort Covington and Fort McHenry which commanded the passage from the Patapsco into the harbor of Baltimore, received the bom-

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Burning
of
Wash-
ington

With-
drawal
of the
British



GALLANT DEFENSE OF FORT STEPHENSON

bardment of sixteen ships a little more than two miles from the forts, just far enough indeed to be beyond their effective range. On the night of the 13th the enemy attempted to storm the works, but were repulsed. The squadron saw that it had undertaken an impossible task, and so withdrew down the river. Colonel Brooke could do nothing without the help of the fleet, and he also retreated. Francis Scott Key had gone on board one of the British ships, under a flag of truce, to procure the exchange of a friend, Dr. Beans, of Upper Marlborough. They were very anxious about the fate of the forts, fearing that they would be obliged to surrender. At break of day, Key cast his eyes longingly towards the fort and with a thrill of delight saw the flag still waving above the ramparts. The sight so inspired him that he wrote our national song, *The Star Spangled Banner*, which doubtless will be sung by patriots through the centuries.

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Key
Writes
"Star
Spangled
Banner"

We have referred to the unpopularity of the war in New England, which suffered greatly because of the destruction of her commerce. Twenty-six delegates from the legislatures of Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, and Vermont met in Hartford, December 15. They held their meetings in secret, George Cabot, of Boston, acting as president. They sat for three weeks, during which some headstrong members expressed themselves in favor of withdrawing from the Union. No definite action was taken, however, in that direction, though an address was drawn up, charging the national Government with giving effect to measures injurious to New England. Amendments were proposed to the Constitution, and a committee was appointed to visit Washington to demand the applying of the revenues of New England to her own defense. An adjournment took place until June, but the war came to an end before that date, and the convention did not again assemble.

The
Hartford
Con-
vention

Two expeditions were sent against the British and the Indians of the Northwest in the summer of 1814. Two hundred men went up the Mississippi from St. Louis and posted themselves at Prairie du Chien (*prā-re du sheen'*), above the mouth of the Wisconsin, hoping thus to keep the hostile Winnebagoes and Chippewas in subjection. While building a fort, a force of six hundred Canadians and Indians invested it and compelled the Americans to surrender. Colonel Croghan, the hero of Fort Stephenson, led six hundred men northward from Detroit against the British post and depot of stores at

Expedi-
tion to
North-
west

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Mackinaw. Several vessels of Perry's fleet acted as a convoy for the land forces, but the movement was so tardy a one that when Mackinaw was reached, August 4, the British were fully prepared. An assault was repelled, and the expedition returned after destroying some shipping and supplies in Georgian bay.

Vigorous
Meas-
ures of
General
Jackson

After the chastisement which General Jackson gave the Creek Indians, they surrendered much of their lands, but were increasingly resentful. When the British squadron entered the Gulf of Mexico and occupied the forts at Pensacola, with the permission of the Spanish authorities, the Indians saw a chance of revenging themselves upon the Americans. The British attacked Mobile Point, September 15, but were repulsed. Two hundred Creeks took part in the land attack, thus proving their treacherous nature. Major-General Jackson was in command of the southwestern military district and was incensed at the action of the Spanish authorities, which was a gross violation of neutrality. Unable to obtain satisfaction from the Spanish governor of Florida for his breach of faith, Jackson, with two thousand Tennessee militia and a body of Choctaw warriors, captured Pensacola, November 7, drove the British to the harbor, and then out of that, and compelled the Spanish governor to surrender the town. When Jackson returned to Mobile, he learned that New Orleans was in imminent danger of capture by the enemy, and he was besought to go to its relief. The British had received large reinforcements from England and were in the gulf making ready to invade Louisiana.

Prepara-
tions to
Attack
New
Orleans

The veterans that had arrived from England were under the command of General Sir Edward Pakenham, a brother-in-law of the Duke of Wellington, and a brilliant officer who had fought in many battles against Bonaparte. Pakenham was so confident of capturing New Orleans that he brought with him printing-presses, custom-house and civil officers, and everything that would be required in the permanent occupation of the city. He tried to hire Lafitte, a noted freebooter, to help him, but he refused and offered his services to Jackson, who accepted them. Jackson reached New Orleans on the 2d of December. With his usual vigor, he enlisted almost every man who could carry a gun, including the militia, convicts, and negroes. His sternness caused considerable dissatisfaction, which he met by declaring martial law—which means that the government of the city is taken out of the hands of the civil authorities and placed in the hands of

the military. This step made Jackson an autocrat for the time being. He, however, strained every nerve to put the city into the most efficient condition to repel attack. New works were added to Fort St. Philip, guarding the Mississippi at Détour la Plaquemine (*plak-meen'*), and an extensive line of fortifications was erected on the left bank of the river four miles below the city. The line reached from the Mississippi to an impassable cypress swamp on the east. A ditch between the river and the swamp was utilized by throwing up intrenchments and piling cotton bales to a height that protected the troops in its rear. At many available places cannon were mounted. The other bank of the river was held by General Morgan and his militia, and by Commodore Patterson with a part of his squadron. Gunboats were waiting to contest the passage of the river between Lakes Pontchartrain and Borgne (*born*), while the pass of Bayou St. John above the city was guarded by a strong force.

The British fleet appeared at the mouth of the channel between Pontchartrain and Borgne on the 14th of December. The American flotilla, under the command of Lieutenant Thomas Ap Catesby Jones, fiercely attacked it and inflicted considerable injury, but it was no match for the British fleet, which soon destroyed it, Lieutenant Jones being dangerously wounded. Then, on the 22d, a body of troops in flat-bottomed boats was taken to the extremity of the lake and landed in a reedy swamp. Jackson attacked them on the night of the 23d and killed a number, but could not drive out the remainder. He withdrew towards the town, and five days later the British were only a half-mile from the American lines. They attacked it with shells and rockets, but met with indifferent success.

Jackson's three thousand men were mostly militia, but among them were many backwoodsmen and riflemen from Kentucky and Tennessee, the finest marksmen in the world. They had full confidence in their leader, and were eager to measure strength with the brightly uniformed veterans of Europe. They occupied a line of intrenchments a mile long, and situated nearly four miles from the city. A canal in front and the batteries on the other side of the river protected this line, in addition to eight batteries mounted in position. The enemy worked their way forward with great care, and by the 31st of December were within about five hundred yards of the works. They threw up breastworks of bags of sugar and barrels of molasses, which were no more effective than those of ice which Montgomery

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Defenses
of the
City

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Jack-
son's
Forces

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erected in front of Quebec in 1775. The cannon balls of the Americans sent both the liquid and the granulated sweetness flying in all directions. Three desperate assaults were made upon the works by the enemy, but each time they were repulsed with heavy loss, while the loss to the Americans was practically nothing.

Pakenham saw that he had a hard task before him. He dug a canal to connect the creek emptying into Lake Borgne with the main channel of the Mississippi, with the view of sending artillery into the river and silencing the batteries on the western shore. The work was a laborious one, but was of little avail. About this time Jackson received three thousand Kentucky militia, all of them as fine marksmen as were the Tennesseans.

Battle of
New
Orleans

On the morning of January 8, 1815, the English forces moved against the American intrenchments. They numbered more than eight thousand men and were the flower of the English army. They advanced in two columns, each with a regiment in front with scaling ladders and fascines, and with a thousand Highlanders between, prepared to support an attack on each wing of the American force, while a powerful reserve was in the rear. They formed an imposing mass and roused a murmur of admiration among the Americans, who, with rifles cocked and fingers upon the triggers, glanced along the barrels, taking sight, and awaited the order to fire. The patriots had in addition a thirty-two pounder, loaded to the muzzle with rifle-balls. At the command "Fire!" the cannon and thousands of rifles were discharged. The Americans were in two rows, those behind loading for the ones in front, so that the discharge was almost continuous. The British recoiled under the fearful discharge, but quickly rallied, their men dropping by the score before the storm of death. It was a brave advance. The left column pushed along the embankment skirting the river, and the right entering the swamp, tried to turn Jackson's left, but the effort failed. The canal dug by Pakenham had partly fallen in, and was useless to the enemy.

British
Com-
manders
Fall

Pakenham would not be daunted, and, running to the head of the regiment carrying the scaling ladders, he shouted to his troops to follow him. A few of his men penetrated the lines, where they were shot down. Pakenham himself was mortally wounded; Gibbs, his successor, survived but a short time; Keane, the third in command, was grievously injured, and Colonel Dale, at the head of the Highland regiment, was killed. The assault was hopeless, and the



BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS

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A
Great
Victory

enemy retreated. The battle was over, and "Old Hickory's" glorious victory of New Orleans was won.

The engagement began and ended in less than half an hour, during which the British suffered a loss of twenty-six hundred in killed, wounded, and prisoners, about eight hundred being killed, while of the Americans only seven were killed and six wounded. Jackson granted a truce for the burial of the dead, after which General Lambert, commander of the reserves, withdrew his detachment from the west bank of the river and retired with his crippled army to Lake Borgne. At Fort Bower he learned that a treaty of peace had been signed between his country and the United States, before the battle took place. This was the most brilliant victory of the war, and is still celebrated in many parts of the country.

In August, 1814, the United States commissioners, John Quincy Adams, James A. Bayard, Henry Clay, Jonathan Russell, and Albert Gallatin, met in Ghent the British representatives—Lord Gambier, Henry Goulburn, and William Adams. Several months were spent in negotiations, and on the 24th of December a treaty was agreed upon, signed and sent to London, where it was ratified on the 28th by the Prince Regent. The treaty arrived in New York, February 11, 1815, on the *Favorite*. It was ratified by the Senate of the United States on February 17, and promulgated the next day by proclamation of the President. As this news made its way slowly over the land, it was received with the deepest satisfaction by the people. Had there been an ocean cable, or wireless telegraphy, in those days, or had the Atlantic then been crossed by the modern "ocean greyhounds" making the passage in less than a week, the battle of New Orleans with its many casualties and several of the naval engagements need not have taken place.

Treaty
of
Ghent
Brings
Peace

The treaty of Ghent which closed the struggle was absurd in most of its features, for the real cause of the trouble between the countries was not touched. The right of search claimed by Great Britain was passed over in silence, and nothing was done concerning the injuries to our commerce or of the rights of neutral nations. Each side agreed to restore all places or possessions taken during the war, and, after the signing of the treaty, to stop Indian hostilities, and to do all possible to break up the slave trade. Provisions were made for adjusting the international boundaries between Canada and the

United States and for settling other boundary disputes which had existed since 1783.

The chief naval operations have been related, and we must now refer to some of the particular engagements on the ocean. In the spring of 1813 Captain Porter, in the *Essex*, doubled Cape Horn and entered the Pacific, the first American frigate to appear in that mighty expanse of water. His work was so vigorous that he soon broke up the British whaling trade in the Pacific. He armed a number of his prizes, paid his men out of the money captured, and found himself at the head of quite a fleet. All the countries in that part of the world were friendly to Great Britain, so he seized the Marquesas Islands when it was necessary to refit his ships, after which he continued his cruise. Early in 1814, the *Essex* entered the neutral harbor of Valparaiso, where she was blockaded by the *Phoebe* and the *Cherub*, which were searching for her. While crippled from an accident, and in violation of the laws of nations, the *Essex* was attacked by both vessels, which poured shot into her from a distance and prevented her closing with them. The *Essex* fought with the greatest heroism, and did not surrender until she had fifty-eight men killed, sixty-five wounded, and thirty-one drowned, out of a total crew of two hundred and fifty-five. The *Essex* had forty-six guns and the enemy seventy-three, but only six of Porter's guns could be used against the thirty-two long guns in the British ships. In his official report, the British commander said that the *Essex* did not surrender "until the loss was so great, and her shattered condition so bad, as to render further resistance unavailing." Midshipman David G. Farragut, then only thirteen years old, conducted himself with conspicuous gallantry during this terrible affair.

The sloop-of-war *Wasp*, commanded by Captain Jacob Jones, when about 600 miles off Norfolk, Va., met the British brig *Frolic* guarding a fleet of merchantmen. A furious fire began at short range. The *Wasp* soon lost her main-top mast; the vessels ran foul of each other so that the *Wasp* poured a raking fire upon the *Frolic's* deck. When the Americans boarded, the only uninjured man on deck was the man at the wheel. Of the *Wasp's* crew five were killed and five wounded; not twenty of the English remained unhurt. Unfortunately Captain Jones was robbed of the fruits of his victory, for he was overtaken, while disabled from the engagement, by the British line-

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Essex



THE WASP AND THE FROLIC

of-battle ship *Poictiers*, and both the *Wasp* and her prize were taken to Bermuda.

England, already filled with dismay at the repeated success of American warships, was overwhelmed with dismay when she heard that the *Wasp* had captured the *Frolic*. Congress awarded Captain Jones a medal, and distributed \$25,000 among his crew. The *Wasp* was released from Bermuda, and in May, Captain Johnston Blakely sailed with her across the Atlantic, and on the 28th of June captured the British sloop *Reindeer* in the English Channel. The *Reindeer* was so riddled that Blakely burned her. On a dark night, early in September, the *Wasp* forced the *Avon* to surrender, but three consorts of the *Avon* coming up, Blakely was compelled to relinquish his prize. He, however, captured several other prizes, but later in the autumn the *Wasp* was lost at sea with all on board. The sloop-of-war *Peacock*, Captain Warrington in command, sailed from New York in March, and on the 29th of April captured the *Épervier* after a severe fight of forty minutes. The prize was valuable, for the vessel itself was sold for \$55,000 and she had more than \$100,000 in specie on board. Before returning to New York in October, the *Peacock*, in another cruise, took fourteen vessels.

After Bainbridge had won his brilliant victory in the favorite frigate of the navy, the *Constitution*, she was thoroughly refitted and proceeded to sea, in charge of Captain Charles Stewart. On February 14, 1814, she captured the *Pictou* off the coast of Surinam. On her return to New England, she was chased into Marblehead by two heavily armed British frigates. Reaching Boston, the *Constitution* remained until the close of the year, when she again put to sea. Crossing the Atlantic to the Bay of Biscay, she cruised off the harbor of Lisbon. While sailing towards St. Vincent, two strange sails were sighted, February 20, 1815. Stewart at once gave chase, when they displayed the British colors. They proved to be the *Cyane*, of 34 guns, and the *Levant*, of 21 guns. Stewart attacked both ships, and the battle, which was a brief one, was fought by moonlight. Stewart displayed consummate seamanship in this remarkable engagement. He kept his two opponents each at the corner of a triangle, while he held the third, firing, with great rapidity and accuracy, his forward guns into one and his rear guns into the other. He not only defeated every attempt made by them to secure a raking position, but repeatedly raked both and finally compelled

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Career
of the
Wasp

The
*Consti-
tution*



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CAPTURE OF THE CYANE AND LEVANT

From the Original Landing by Warren Sheppard

them to surrender. The *Constitution* received hardly any injury, and the next morning resumed her cruise for another fight. Her loss was four killed and ten wounded against thirty-five English killed and forty-two wounded.

When the respective captains of the *Cyane* and the *Levant* met on board the *Constitution* as prisoners, they began blaming each other for the mistakes made. Each insisted that if his ally had done as he should, they would have defeated the American. "You are mistaken," remarked Stewart; "no matter what you might have done, I would have had you both. If you don't believe it, I will put each of you and your crews back on your respective ships and we'll fight it over again." They decided that they had had enough of fighting, and that it was best to leave matters as they were.

At Porto Rico, Stewart heard of the treaty of peace. He arrived in New York in May, bringing news of the capture of the *Cyane* and the *Levant*. Like all his gallant predecessors in command of the superb frigate, he was deservedly honored by his government and fellow-citizens. Congress awarded him a vote of thanks, a sword, and a gold medal; he also received the freedom of the city of New York from its Common Council, while the State of Pennsylvania presented him with a gold-hilted sword. Stewart died in 1869, in his ninety-second year. He lived for a long time near Bordentown, New Jersey, and retained his activity of mind and body to the last. He was known as "Old Ironsides," and the *Constitution*, which is still preserved, bears the same expressive name.

It will be recalled that Commodore Decatur was chafing near New London, where he was closely blockaded by a vigilant British fleet. In the summer of 1814, he was transferred to the command of the *President*, forming one of a small squadron consisting of the *Peacock*, the *Hornet*, and the *Tom Bowline*. This squadron was intended for the East Indies. The *President* eluded the blockaders off Sandy Hook and put to sea. She had not gone far, when she was pursued by four British ships-of-war, two of which steadily gained upon her. Decatur tried to draw them away from each other, so as to fight them singly, but failed, and after a long running fight, was compelled to strike his colors. The remainder of the squadron sailed, late in January, ignorant of the fate of their flag-ship. They headed for an island in the South Atlantic, which Decatur had named as the rendezvous. The *Peacock* and *Tom Bowline* arrived there in March,

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A
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but a storm drove them out to sea. When the *Hornet* was about to anchor there, on the 23rd of March, the British sloop *Penguin* was sighted and captured after a furious engagement. Captain Biddle was in command of the *Hornet*, and this action of his was one of the most interesting of the war. Biddle received a gold medal from Congress, and the citizens of Philadelphia presented a service of silver plate to him. A British battle-ship-of-the-line afterwards chased the *Hornet*, but by fine seamanship, she eluded her pursuer in June and reached New York. In no other naval engagement of the war were the contestants so evenly matched as in this one. The *Hornet* carried twenty guns, having two hundred and seventy-nine pounds of metal to the broadside, while the *Penguin* mounted nineteen guns, with two hundred and seventy-four pounds of metal to the broadside. The latter had one hundred and twenty-eight and the former one hundred and thirty-two men. The action was fought off Tristan d'Acunha and lasted only twenty-two minutes. The British had thirty-eight killed and wounded, while the American loss was one killed and eleven wounded. When the flag of the *Penguin* was lowered, Captain Biddle stepped to the taffrail of the *Hornet* and asked his enemy if he had surrendered. Two British seamen fired at him. One shot struck him on the chin, inflicting a painful wound. Almost at the same instant, the two seamen were shot dead by the American marines. The officers of the *Penguin* said that every one of their midshipmen lost a limb. Captain Biddle reported that the *Penguin* was completely riddled with shot, and that her foremast and bowsprit were carried away. The *Hornet* did not receive a single round shot in her hull nor was any material damage done to her spars or rigging. The British commander and boatswain had served under Nelson. After taking a few stores out of the *Penguin* she was scuttled and sunk.

Another notable engagement was that between the *United States*, commanded by Captain Stephen Decatur, and the British frigate *Macedonian*, found cruising off the Azores. There was a heavy sea and the battle began at long range. The *Macedonian* suffered severely from the heavier guns of her opponent. At shorter range the outcome was no better. Decatur raked the *Macedonian*, disabled her rigging and dismounted her guns upon the engaged side, and an hour and a half after the battle began, received her surren-

der. Early in December Decatur and his prize reached New York, where both were the subject of an enthusiastic triumph.

Captain Warrington, in command of the *Peacock*, captured the *Nautilus* in the Straits of Sunda on the 30th of June, 1815. The next day he learned of the ratification of peace; so he gave up the *Nautilus* and sailed for the United States. He, like many others, was also honored by Congress with the nation's thanks and a gold medal. Warrington, when he reached home, found that every cruiser, both public and private, had returned to port some time before, and that to him, therefore, belonged the distinction of having fired the last shot in the War of 1812.

In setting forth this narrative of the engagements on the ocean, we have confined ourselves mainly to the doings of the American navy itself, but it must not be forgotten that many of the most brilliant exploits were performed by the privateers, who in the space of three years "took, burned, and destroyed sixteen hundred British merchantmen of all classes," inflicting a damage upon the enemy almost beyond estimate. The record of the doings of these daring cruisers would fill many volumes. While we cannot attempt to give even a portion of them, there is one that must be told, for no American can read of it without feeling his pulses beat quicker and his heart swell with pride at the thought of the valiant deeds performed by his own countrymen.

The privateers put out from almost every seaport. Baltimore furnished the largest number, but New York, Philadelphia, Boston, and Salem sent out some score or more. From Charleston, Bristol, and Plymouth sailed some of the most famous, varying in size from mere pilot boats, with twenty or thirty men on each, to the largest frigates, the peer of the finest ships in the British navy. The majority of the privateers were schooners, medium-sized, swift and powerfully armed, but a number were brigs and brigantines, crowded with men, so as to furnish crews to bring in the prizes, which they were confident of capturing. Sometimes a half-dozen of these prizes would so deplete the original crew that hardly enough men were left to man and handle the privateer itself.

The privateer *General Armstrong* was commanded by Captain Samuel C. Reid, of Connecticut. Her armament included nine long guns, the largest of which was a twenty-four-pounder, the others being nine-pounders, or "long nines," as they were called. At the

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Achievements
of the
Privateers

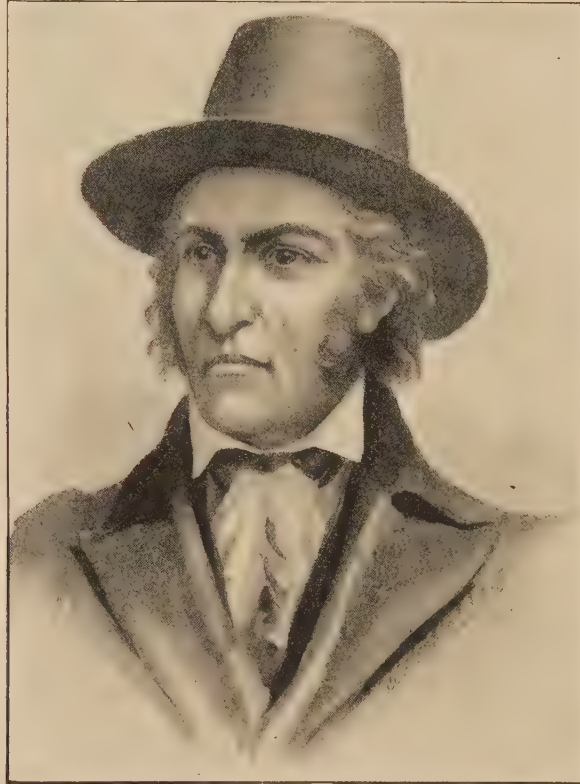
The
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period to which we refer, her entire crew consisted of ninety men, the remainder having been sent home with the prizes previously captured. The *General Armstrong* put into the harbor of Fayal, about the middle of September, 1814. Fayal is one of the most northern of the Azores group, lying due west of Portugal. Its fine harbor made it a favorite stopping-place in those days, as it is still, for sail-



CAPTAIN SAMUEL C. REID

ing vessels bound on long voyages to the north or to the south. The privateer's purpose was to provision the ship. The same object led a British squadron, bound for Jamaica, to join Admiral Sir Thomas Cochrane's naval expedition against New Orleans, to halt at Fayal on the 25th of September. The British squadron consisted of three vessels; the flagship *Plantagenet*, of seventy-four guns, commanded by Captain Robert Floyd; the frigate *Rota*, thirty-eight guns, under Captain Philip Somerville, and the brig *Carnation*, eighteen guns,

under Captain George Bentham. These vessels were thoroughly equipped for action and were manned by two thousand men.

On entering Fayal harbor, Captain Floyd espied the Yankee privateer and distributed his ships around her so that escape was impossible. Since he was in the waters of a neutral power, Captain Reid did not think the enemy would attack him; but he took no chances, spread his nets, and prepared for action. The next day several boats put out from the British flagship and headed for the privateer. Floyd afterwards reported that he did not mean to attack the American, and was on a reconnoitering expedition only. Captain Reid did not take that view of the matter. He believed that the enemy intended to board him, that being a favorite method of attack in the naval warfare of the period. He gave the boats several warnings, but they came straight ahead. When they had approached dangerously near he fired and wounded several men, and drove the boats back.

Captain Reid expected a general attack, and put his ship nearer shore, with springs on her cables. At eight o'clock he was not surprised to see a number of boats lowered from the British men-of-war, and filled with armed men. The accounts in regard to the number of the boats are conflicting. Floyd reported that four boats were lowered from the *Plantagenet* and three from the *Rota*, and that one hundred and eighty men were in them. An English eyewitness of the fight is responsible for the statement that there were fourteen boats, containing about forty men each. At all events, each boat carried a carronade in her bows, and the expedition was under the command of Lieutenant William Matterface of the *Rota*. They approached some rocks near the privateer, behind which they sheltered themselves for several hours. In the meantime, the *Carnation*, being light of draft, like the *General Armstrong*, made sail and approached within shot of the privateer, to be handy in case she should slip her cables and attempt to put to sea.

At midnight the Americans heard the splash of oars and knew that the attack was at hand. The boats were soon within plain sight, for the moon was shining brightly. At a considerable distance the enemy began firing from their carronades. This was returned by the long nines, but no damage was done on either side. But at close quarters the fight was fierce and bloody. Three of the boats were sunk before they reached the nets and their occupants left struggling

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In Fayal
Harbor

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A Des-
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in the water. The Americans leaned over the rails and poured a deadly fire from muskets and pistols into the boats. The fire was returned hotly. When the enemy reached the nets they made a valiant attempt to board. They hacked the nets and laid hold of them, pulling themselves within reach of the vessel's side and attempting to clamber upon deck. They attacked on the bows and starboard quarter. Captain Reid defended the starboard quarter. The attack at the bows was met by First Officer Frederick A. Worth. Captain Reid drove off the boarders on his quarter and then hurried forward. He and his men were needed, for the attack was on the point of success. The boarders swarmed up, shouting "No quarter!"

"No quarter!" returned the American tars, shooting them down with pistols held in the enemy's faces and prodding them with long pikes.

The sides of the vessel and the calm sea were stained with blood. Victory was with the Americans. The enemy's boats pulled away, with a little handful of men only. Three boats had gone to the bottom. Others, filled with dead, drifted to the shore. Only two returned to the ships.

A Won-
derful
Victory

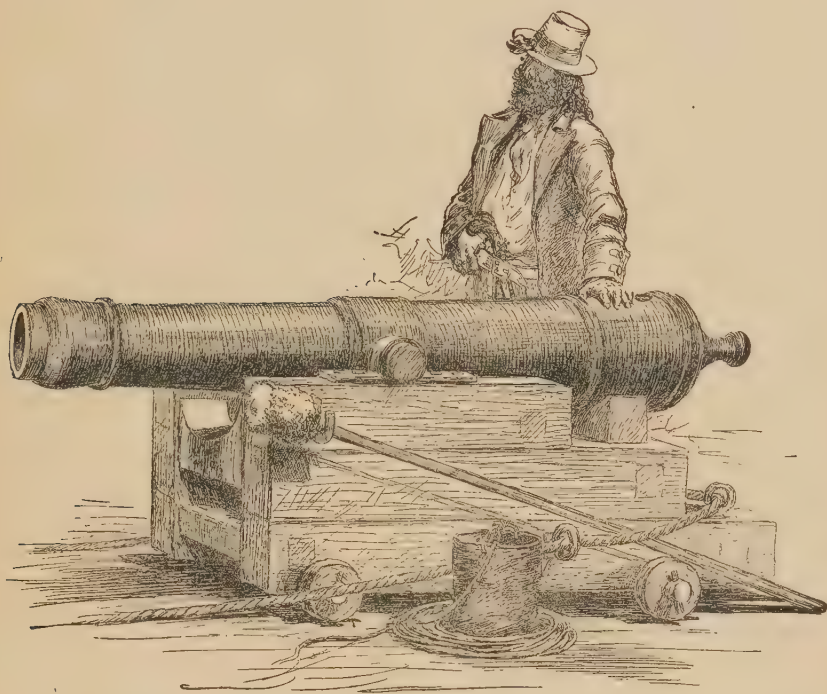
After the fight the Americans counted the cost. The "Long Tom" on the bows had been knocked off its carriage by a shot from a caronade, but it was replaced easily. Two Americans were killed and seven wounded. Second Officer Alex. O. Williams was one of the killed. Mr. Worth and Third Officer Robert Johnson were among the wounded. The British loss was very severe. According to American estimates, two hundred and fifty were killed or wounded. The official report of Captain Floyd was that thirty-four were killed and eighty-six wounded. Among the dead was Lieutenant Matterface, who led the expedition.

At daybreak the next morning, the Fayal authorities sent a message to Captain Floyd requesting him to stop further hostilities in the harbor. Captain Floyd replied that he meant to have that privateer if he knocked down the entire town. He accompanied the reply with the warning that if the authorities of Fayal permitted the Americans to destroy or injure the privateer, he would consider Fayal a hostile port and treat it accordingly. Captain Reid heard of the threat, and ordered that the dead and wounded be taken ashore. He also advised the sailors to send ashore the most valuable of their effects. Then he put the ship in good order and awaited the attack.

It came before the close of the day. The brig *Carnation* made sail, and, approaching within a short-firing distance, poured broadside after broadside into the privateer. The *General Armstrong's* broadsides were not effective, for the reason that she had smaller guns, and only half as many as had the *Carnation*. "Long Tom" was put into service, and the effect was immediate. One shot

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A "LONG TOM"

took effect in the *Carnation's* hull and started a dangerous leak. Another snapped the fore-topmast. Others injured the rigging badly. In a short time the *Carnation* was obliged to turn and escape.

Another
Victory

The other vessels approached afterward, and it was evident that a general attack was close at hand. Such an attack could have only one end. The British had three vessels against one smaller than their smallest, one hundred and fifty guns against nine smaller, two thousand men against ninety. Captain Reid determined that they should not capture the *General Armstrong*. Lowering the boats, he scuttled the ship, and pulled for the shore. The British hastened to

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the Arm-
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the privateer, which was beyond hope by the time they reached her, and set her afire and she burned to the water's edge. The British were enraged at their failure to capture the privateer as a prize, and threatened to pursue the Americans. Captain Reid seized a stone fortress ashore, threw himself within it, and dared the British to follow. They did not come. The *Carnation* was damaged so much, and all of the enemy's ships had been depleted of so many men, that the entire squadron had to put back to England to refit, delaying Sir Thomas Cochrane's expedition. He arrived at New Orleans four days after Jackson reached there.

The
Hero
of the
Victory

Captain Reid was highly honored on his return to America. He landed at Savannah, and received ovations all the way to New York, where, on April 7, 1815, the state legislature presented him with a sword. He was then made sailing-master in the navy. He figured afterward as the inventor of the signal telegraph which he erected at the Battery and the Narrows. He regulated and numbered the pilot boats of the harbor, and established the lightship off Sandy Hook. He designed the present form of the American flag, proposing to retain the thirteen stripes and add a new star for each new state.

The affair in the harbor of Fayal resulted in a long diplomatic correspondence. The President took steps to compel Portugal to insist upon the inviolability of her neutral ports. He also claimed indemnity and got a satisfactory award, but afterwards Louis Napoleon, to whom the matter was referred as arbiter, reversed the award. Great Britain apologized to Portugal for the act of Captain Floyd in attacking an enemy in a neutral port.

This stirring fight at Fayal inspired James Jeffrey Roche to write a ballad on "The Fight of the *Armstrong* Privateer." The opening lines are:

"Tell the story to your sons
Of the gallant days of yore,
When the brig of seven guns
Fought the fleet of seven score.
From the set of sun till morn, through the long September night—
Ninety men against two thousand, and the ninety won the fight—
In the harbor of Fayal in the Azore."*

*The battle saber of Captain Samuel Chester Reid was presented to the Navy Department by his son, Colonel Sam. C. Reid, during President Cleveland's administration. It was gratefully accepted by Secretary of the Navy Herbert, who ordered it sent to the Naval Academy at Annapolis, Md., "that the name of him whose gallantry made that sword illustrious may be perpetuated, and the story of his brilliant achievement preserved as a glorious inspiration for the youth of this country."

The "Long Tom," which bore so prominent a part in this memorable engagement, was afterwards recovered by the Portuguese and mounted in the castle of San Juan (*huan*) in Fayal. In later years Portugal presented the gun to the United States. When received it was set up in Lafayette Square, Washington, opposite the White House.

After this fight blessed peace came once more to the country, where if possible, it was more welcome than in England. Few stopped to ask as to the terms of the treaty: the fact that the war was ended was enough. It had cost us eighteen thousand sailors, sixteen hundred and eighty-three vessels, and a debt of a hundred million dollars. Commerce was at a standstill, and the factories of New England were idle. Now all this was to be changed. Men clasped hands and shed tears of joy, while the shipping of New England was decorated with bunting, and within twenty-four hours after the arrival of the news, the "dockyards rang with the sound of hammer and saw."

In 1816, Congress passed a law re-chartering the Bank of the United States, but the President vetoed it. It was amended and passed again at the next session. The capital was thirty-five millions; the central banking house was in Philadelphia, with branches in other cities. This action greatly strengthened the country's credit, and gave an immediate impulse to commerce.

We had an account to settle with Algiers. The Dey did not know much about our country, but he knew we were at war with Great Britain, and he thought it a favorable time to renew his attacks upon our commerce, believing that we would be glad to pay him tribute, as we and other nations had done for many years. By way of opening proceedings, the Dey notified Mr. Lear, the American consul, that the only way for him, his family, and his few friends to escape being made slaves, was to pay twenty-seven thousand dollars. This was deemed a heavy tribute, but Mr. Lear was forced to pay it or suffer the penalty. To this, however, there was a sequel. Congress, in March, 1815, declared war upon Algiers, and sent Commodores Decatur and Bainbridge to the Mediterranean to teach that country a much-needed lesson. Decatur arrived off Gibraltar in June, and learning that the Algerian forty-six gun frigate, *Mashouda*, was in the vicinity, he set out to find her. On the 17th of the month she was sighted. Decatur made every effort to approach her unawares, so as to prevent her taking refuge in neutral waters; but she soon dis-

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Peace

The
Bank
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War
with
Algiers

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covered the nationality of the American and fled. Decatur's flagship, the *Guerriere*, led in the chase and ere long came within range. The Turk opened fire with musketry and wounded one of our sailors. Decatur reserved his fire until the ship just cleared the enemy's yard-arms, when he delivered a broadside, one shot cutting the Algerian admiral in two, while a number of his men were killed. The Turks fought with unusual bravery and did not surrender until the other members of the American squadron came up. The *Guerriere* had three killed and eleven wounded, while the Algerian had thirty killed and wounded.

Algiers
Com-
pelled to
Settle

Two days later, Decatur captured another frigate, and then made sail for Algiers. He demanded of the Dey the instant surrender of all American prisoners, with payment for whatever property had been destroyed and the abandonment of all claim to future tribute. The terrified Dey prayed that the United States would still pay him tribute, if it were only a small amount of gunpowder. "The only gunpowder you shall receive," replied Decatur, "will be from our cannon, and accompanied by solid shot." The Dey at last yielded the point and signed the treaty on the quarter-deck of the American ship. Decatur next called on the Pasha of Tunis and forced him to pay forty-six thousand dollars for the American vessels he had allowed the English to capture in his harbor during the war. The Dey of Tripoli was compelled to pay twenty-five thousand dollars for a similar breach of faith, and to release ten Christians who were held in slavery. This closed the infamous levy by the Barbary States of tribute from Christian nations. In the space of a few weeks, the American squadron did what all the nations of Europe had not dared to attempt.

Admis-
sion of
Louis-
iana

In April, 1812, the State of Louisiana was admitted to the Union. It had been named in honor of the French King, Louis XIV., whose explorers followed the Mississippi to the sea in 1682. The first settlement was made near its mouth by Iberville, at Biloxi, in 1699, and New Orleans was founded in 1718. The immense territory was ceded to Spain in 1763, at the close of the French and Indian War, but re-ceded in 1800 to France. In 1804, the region was divided into two parts, the Territory of Orleans, which included the present State of Louisiana, and the District of Louisiana, composed of the remaining area. Upon the admission of the Orleans District, it was designated Louisiana; the name of the remainder was changed to Missouri.

In December, 1816, Indiana became the nineteenth state of the Union. Its name is derived from the term Indian. When Ohio became a state, in 1802, the remaining territory was called Indiana. Its final boundaries were determined in 1809, and it was the second state formed from the Northwest Territory. It developed slowly at first because of Indian troubles, after which its prosperity was rapid.

During the latter part of Madison's administrations, important treaties were made with the Choctaws, Chickasaws, Cherokees, and other Indian tribes, by which we acquired a large extent of territory. The negro had long been a disturbing element in the country. Many good people thought that the true solution of the "Negro problem" was to transport the colored people to Africa, their original home. So the Colonization Society of the United States was formed with that purpose in view. Liberia, on the Gulf of Guinea, in tropical Africa, was selected as the "promised land" for the African race. The capital, Monrovia, was named in honor of President Monroe, and a republican form of government established. The Republic of Liberia became independent in 1848. Many colored people went thither and for a period occasional emigrations were made, but the object sought was never attained.

The War of 1812 gave the death-blow to the Federal party. Its Presidential candidate in 1816 was Rufus King, of New York, who received only 34 out of 221 electoral votes. James Monroe, of Virginia, and Daniel D. Tompkins, the Democratic war-governor of New York, were respectively chosen President and Vice-President.

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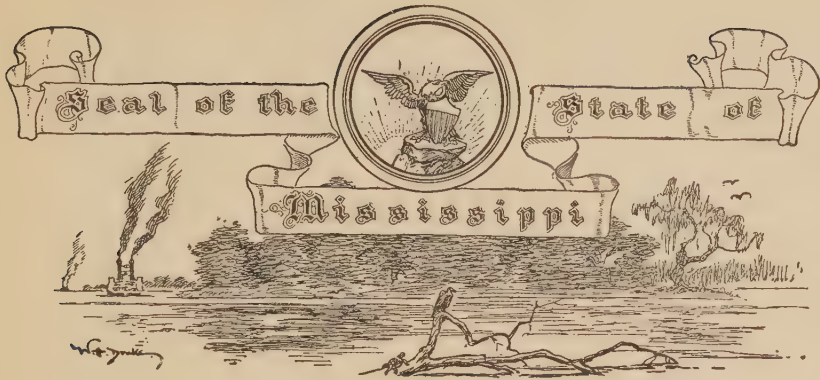
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The
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of 1816





James Monroe



CHAPTER XI

MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION—1817-1825

[*Author's Note:* Under President Monroe the nation entered upon what was termed "The Era of Good Feeling." It was the lull after the storm of war, in which the country settled down to the vocations of peace, with revived commerce, specie payments, and vast extensions of territory. Maine entered the Union, and Florida was added to it by purchase. Other accessions were made to the area of the nation, which now embraced Illinois, Alabama, Mississippi, and Missouri. These extensions of territory, being mainly southward and westward, brought up the subject of slavery and fixed its geographical lines. Though compromise settled the matter for the time being, it was to become in the future, as we know, the great issue between the North and the South. The other incidents of the Monroe régime are the destructive war against the Seminole Indians; the awakening controversies over the rival economical policies of protection and free trade; and the enunciation of the Monroe Doctrine,—guardianship by the United States over the New World, and of freedom from entangling alliances with the Old World. Interest in these matters will not suffer by the chronicling of the visit of the country's early ally in the cause of freedom—the now aged Lafayette. The special authorities for the period are Gilman's "Monroe"; Schurz's "Henry Clay"; Tucker's "Monroe Doctrine"; and Benton's "Thirty Years' View."]]



JAMES MONROE, the fifth President, like all his predecessors except Adams, was a native of Virginia, having been born in Westmoreland county April 28, 1758. He was educated at William and Mary college, and served as a lieutenant in the Continental army at Trenton, Brandywine, and Monmouth. He left the army after the battle of Monmouth, in 1778, but rejoined it when his state was invaded in 1781. He studied law under Jefferson, and was elected a delegate to the Continental Congress when only twenty-five years old. He be-

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came minister plenipotentiary to France, but, having offended the administration, was recalled in 1794. He was governor of Virginia from 1799 to 1802, when he was sent as envoy-extraordinary to France, to aid Edward Livingston, the resident minister, in the negotiations for the purchase of Louisiana. He was re-elected governor of Virginia in 1811, and shortly afterwards was appointed Secretary of State by Madison. He served at the same time as Secretary of War, and, the treasury being empty, he pledged his personal credit to secure the defense of New Orleans. He died in New York in 1831.

While Monroe possessed no special genius, he was the right man to fill the office of President during the transition period, as it may be called, from war to peace. He was of unblemished integrity, conservative, tactful, and a thorough American in sentiment. He selected a cabinet of marked ability, and thus surrounded himself with the ablest of advisers, when their counsel could not fail to be helpful in the highest degree.

The
Presi-
dent's
Cabinet

Monroe retained two of his former associates, Crowninshield and Meigs, throughout his eight years of service. John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts, was his Secretary of State; William H. Crawford, of Georgia, his Secretary of the Treasury; Isaac Shelby, of Kentucky, and George Graham, were Secretaries of War for a portion of the first year, when John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, held the office until the close of the second administration. Smith Thomson, of New York, and, after him, Samuel L. Southard, of New Jersey, were Secretaries of the Navy. John McLean, of Ohio, succeeded Meigs as Postmaster-General, in 1823. William Wirt, of Virginia, succeeded Richard Rush, of Pennsylvania, as Attorney-General in 1817, and held that office to the close of the régime.

Admis-
sion of
Missis-
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Illinois

Mississippi, the twentieth state, was admitted to the Union, December 1, 1817. Its name in the Indian tongue means "Great Father of Waters." The earliest European known to have traversed the region was De Soto. The first settlement was at St. Peter's, on the Yazoo, in 1703, but every trace of settlement was swept out of the country a quarter of a century later by the Indians. There were many bloody wars with the savages under the early French governors. A part of what is now Mississippi and Alabama was ceded to England in 1763, and became a portion of Georgia. Illinois was admitted to the Union of States in December, 1818. Its name is

believed to be derived from its principal river, signifying "River of Men." La Salle made the first settlements in this region. The name of Illinois Territory was given to that which had been the Northwest Territory before Ohio, Indiana, and the Territory of Michigan were erected into states. Illinois then comprised the present states of Illinois, Wisconsin, and a part of Minnesota. The state, like Indiana and others, suffered greatly during its early days from the turbulent Indians. The massacre at Fort Dearborn, on the present site of Chicago, took place in 1812, but since 1850 the growth of the state has been marvelously rapid.

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Soon after the inauguration of Monroe, the President made a tour of three months, extending from Detroit to Maine. He was everywhere received with respect and honor, and the numerous acquaintances which he formed, his courteous manners, and his great interest in the prosperity of the country, resulted in much good not only to himself, by broadening and extending his knowledge, but to the country at large by softening the rivalries and appeasing the jealousies between the different portions of the Union. The chief public event during the early years of Monroe's administrations was the Seminole War. The Seminole Indians were not only warlike but treacherous. Their home was Florida, which, it will be remembered, first belonged to Spain. They found secure refuge in the swamps and everglades of the region, where they were joined by many runaway slaves, who were safe from pursuit. A number of Creeks were also living there, and this mongrel tribe committed many outrages on the frontiers of Georgia and Alabama. General Gaines was sent to put down the rising among the Seminoles and Creeks, and to drive them out of the territory which the Creeks had ceded to the United States. General Gaines not only failed to do this, but became so immersed in trouble that General Jackson had to hasten to his aid. The latter had regulars, and a large force of Tennessee horsemen, with which he speedily overran the country. His orders forbade him to enter Florida, except in pursuit of the enemy. This, however, was only a piece of diplomacy. Jackson knew that his government would deal leniently with him if he invaded the country, and in fact it expected him to do so,—but since Spain was certain to protest, it was well to have the "official" orders to fall back upon. President Monroe, in his message to Congress, said that the United States had the right to pursue the Indians into the terri-

The
Presi-
dent's
Tour

The
Seminole
War

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General
Jack-
son's
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paign

tory of the Spanish colony whenever the Spanish authorities were unable to drive them out. Now, since the only towns in Florida amenable to Spain were Pensacola and St. Augustine, trouble was sure to come.

Jackson entered Florida in March, 1818, and in April he occupied the Spanish post of St. Mark's at the head of Apalachee Bay. It being proved that a couple of Seminole chiefs there had been active in massacring some American settlers a short time previous to this, Jackson hanged both of them. Leaving a garrison at St. Mark's, he marched hurriedly to the Indian town of Suwanee, hoping to catch "Billy Bowlegs," a Seminole leader, but that chief had been warned, and, despite his odd name, he managed to keep out of the clutches of "Old Hickory."

Vigor of
General
Jackson

At Suwanee was Robert C. Ambrister, formerly an officer in the English army, who was under suspension of duty for a year, in consequence of a duel in which he had taken part. Jackson arrested him, and, returning to St. Mark's, had him and a Scotch trader, named Alexander Arbuthnot, tried by court-martial. It was charged that Arbuthnot had warned the Indians at Suwanee of Jackson's march against them; he was, moreover, known to be a friend of the red men. The court-martial pronounced both men guilty, and sentenced Ambrister to be shot and Arbuthnot to be hanged. The former sentence was reconsidered and changed to a penalty of fifty lashes and a year's imprisonment. Jackson, however, set aside the second sentence, and the Englishman was shot. Of course, the Scotch trader was hanged, and it cannot be said even at this late day that the guilt of either was established beyond question. Jackson next marched against Pensacola, the capital of the province, expelled the Spanish authorities, and declared the whole territory under American rule. The governor fled to Fort Barrancas, at the entrance to Pensacola Bay, but that post was captured by Jackson three days later, and the Spanish officers and troops were sent to Havana. In due time a protest came from Spain, and Congress ordered a full investigation. The report censured Jackson in the severest terms. He had certainly violated international law, and the report of the committee made him out so flagrant an offender that no punishment seemed too great for him; but he became more popular than ever, and it can hardly be believed that the report was an honest one.

On the credit side of Jackson's account was the fact that the Span-

iards had stirred up the Seminoles to commit outrages, while his severe measures had ended the war. Furthermore, he had secured a fine piece of territory for us; he was popular with the masses, together with the President and his Cabinet, and with the leading men. So, in the end, Congress declared that he was not blamable for his course.

It was necessary that Florida should be officially transferred before it could become a part of the United States. A treaty was framed, in February, 1819, by which Spain ceded East and West Florida, with the adjacent islands, to us. The King, however, refused to ratify the instrument, and sent an envoy to America with a number of complaints, mainly concerning our encroachments on Texas, which at that time was a Mexican province. But finally the treaty was ratified, in October, 1820. Our government assumed, to the extent of five million dollars, the claims of American citizens against Spain. The Sabine became the dividing line between the territories of the respective governments west of the Mississippi. Jackson was installed as the first governor, and his rule was characterized by the same vigor and stern justice with which he performed every duty.

In 1819, the southern part of Missouri was formed into a territorial government, and Alabama, which at first was a part of Georgia, was admitted to the Union as a state, towards the close of the same year. Its name is of Indian origin, meaning "Here we rest." The original settlement on Mobile Bay was made by Bienville (*be-ang-veel'*) in 1702. Mobile was for many years the capital. Alabama was ceded to Great Britain, and then to Spain, from whom, as has just been shown, it came into the possession of the United States. The next state admitted was Maine, which entered the Union, March 15, 1820. The early history of the state has been given in that of Massachusetts, of which it formed a part, until, with the consent of the parent state, it became a member of the Union.

In March, 1818, Missouri knocked at the door of the Union. It was so late in the session when she made her demand, that Congress only reported in favor of her admission. The debate over this report caused the most bitter political quarrel that had yet taken place. One party wished it admitted with slavery as a recognized institution and the other without, and neither was willing to yield. Unluckily, the institution was strengthened by a new circumstance. This was the invention, in 1793, of the cotton-gin. But for this, slavery would

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Transfer
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United
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Admis-
sion of
Alabama
and
Maine

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Quarrel
over the
Admis-
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of
Missouri

The
Missouri
Comprom-
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Two
Popular
Meas-
ures

probably have been doomed in the South at that early day, particularly as many of the leading men were opposed to it. The invention made slave labor very profitable, and the institution received new life and flourished. The bill which was introduced in Congress forbidding slavery in Missouri roused so much bitter feeling that open threats of disunion were rife. The admission of Louisiana had already added a large slaveholding area to the Union, and the opponents resolved to check the growth and extension of the "peculiar institution." On the other hand, the friends of slavery were equally determined that Missouri should be a slave state, if her citizens declared themselves in favor of it. Thoughtful men who listened to the fiery wrangles and fierce threats of the contending factions saw that sooner or later the question of slavery in the Union would have to be settled by war; and when the time came, as one expressed it, it would then be washed out by "rivers of blood." The quarrel became so intense that the only way of ending it was by compromise, which at this juncture was offered by Henry Clay. The agreement, accepted March 3, 1820, was that slavery should be permitted in Missouri, but excluded forever from every other area of the Union north and west of the northern limits of Arkansas, thus shutting it out from every state north of 36° 30', save Missouri. This agreement was the famous "Missouri Compromise." The state was admitted August 10, 1821. The name comes from the principal river, meaning "muddy water." The first settlement was St. Genevieve, founded in 1755. St. Louis was settled in 1764 and incorporated as a town in 1809, when Louisiana Territory was organized in 1805. St. Louis was made the capital.

Two measures passed during Monroe's first term added to his popularity. In 1818, Congress granted pensions to the surviving soldiers and officers of the Revolution. There were at that time a good many of the veterans still alive, and the act absorbed a large sum, but it was so just that everybody was pleased, especially those who received the pensions, which, in many cases, were sorely needed. The provisions of the bill were afterwards extended so as to aid the widows and children of the patriots who had died in the war. The other popular measure was an agreement, made with Great Britain in October, 1818, by which American citizens were given the right to share with British subjects in the fisheries of Newfoundland. A short time afterwards the boundary between the United States and Canada

from the Lake of the Woods, just west of Lake Superior, to the Rocky Mountains was defined.

About this period privateering in the West Indies became an unbearable nuisance. The pirates killed and robbed with no fear of consequences. Some of the islands were mere nests of the freebooters, who preyed upon the shipping of all nations. An American squadron under Commodore Perry, the hero of the naval engagement on Lake Erie, was in 1819 sent to extirpate the outlaws, but Perry caught yellow fever and died. Three years later, another squadron went thither and destroyed a score of piratical vessels off the coast of Cuba, while in 1823 Commodore Porter followed and completed the work.

The Presidential candidates in 1820 were Monroe and John Quincy Adams. Of the electoral votes, Monroe received 231, and Adams one, that being cast by Blumer, of New Hampshire, a Monroe elector, in order to prevent, as he announced, Monroe's unanimous election, it being the sentiment of the people that Washington should always stand alone as the recipient of so great an honor. The Vice-Presidential candidates were Daniel D. Tompkins, Richard Stockton, Daniel Rodney, Robert G. Harper, and Richard Rush. Tompkins received 218 votes, and was elected. The 4th of March, 1821, fell on Sunday, so Monroe was the first President to be inaugurated on the 5th of that month.

South America was a land of revolutions. The various countries had long been held by European monarchies, and they now were striving to win their independence. The United States naturally felt a deep sympathy for them, and Henry Clay eloquently urged their recognition by our government, a step which was taken by Congress, in March, 1822. In the following year, the President, in a message to Congress, declared that, for the future, the American continent was not to be considered as territory for colonization or aggression by any European power. This was the enunciation of the famous Monroe Doctrine, which consecrates the Western hemisphere to free institutions, and to immunity from interference by Old World powers. It became one of the most cherished and precious policies of our country. The vigorous message setting forth this doctrine was written by John Quincy Adams, the President's Secretary of State.

Congress now undertook an important work, facilitating the open-

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of 1820

The
Monroe
Doctrine

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ing up of the West. This was the building of a national road for the use of emigrants. It was constructed with great care, with hard, smooth surface, easy grades, and strong bridges. It began at Cumberland, in northwestern Maryland, and was gradually extended to Indiana, by which time the introduction of railroads made its further extension useless. Other roads were meanwhile built and improved by the government.

Visit of
Lafayette

One of the interesting incidents of Monroe's second term was the visit of Lafayette, upon the invitation of the United States. He was now an old man of sixty-eight, but no foreigner was ever held in higher esteem than this gallant Frenchman and trusted friend of Washington, who gave his best efforts to winning our war of independence. He left our country a small, weak, struggling nation, and now found it with a population of ten millions, and a strength and prosperity which were the amazement of the world. The thirteen colonies along the seaboard had in the interval become twenty-four states, stretching inland for more than a thousand miles from the sea. As Lafayette came up New York Bay, Fort Lafayette saluted him, and, as he passed from state to state, he was received with processions, parades, greetings, and honors, such as would have been given to Washington had he been alive. His visit extended over a year, during which he was truly the guest of the nation. He visited Mount Vernon, and stood with uncovered head and moistened eyes before the tomb of "the Father of his Country." Everywhere, the heart of the illustrious Frenchman was touched by manifestations of the gratitude of the nation. In Boston, on the 17th of June, 1825, (just fifty years after the opening battle of the Revolution), he laid the corner-stone of Bunker Hill monument. Lafayette returned to France, in the following September, in the American frigate *Brandywine*, which was placed at his disposal and named in honor of the first battle in which he was engaged and where he was wounded nearly a half century before. Congress also presented him with a township of land in Florida and the goodly sum of two hundred thousand dollars.

Honors
to
Lafayette

After the conclusion of the War of 1812, all kinds of business improved except manufactures. Foreign goods had been shut out from the country, and many Americans built factories. With the coming of peace, England began sending goods to this country, where they were sold much cheaper than Americans could make them. This

compelled the owners to close their factories or sell at a loss. Naturally there arose an urgent demand for an increase of duties on imports. An act making such an increase was passed in 1824. It will be seen that by increasing the duties on goods brought from foreign countries their prices were so raised that the American manufacturers could make the same goods at a profit. Such a list of duties or customs imports is called a *Protective Tariff*, since its design is to protect home manufactures. A *Revenue Tariff* is one intended to obtain revenue only for the government, and leaves the manufacturers to look out for themselves. *Free Trade* would remove all duties, the argument being that a country will naturally produce that which it can make the most money out of, and that the productions brought into existence by taxation put a part of the people into unprofitable employment, which would not be advantageous to the workmen of the country, but only to the manufacturers who employ them. The economical struggle between "Free Trade" and "Protection" began in 1824, and, with varying fortunes, continued for nearly one hundred years.

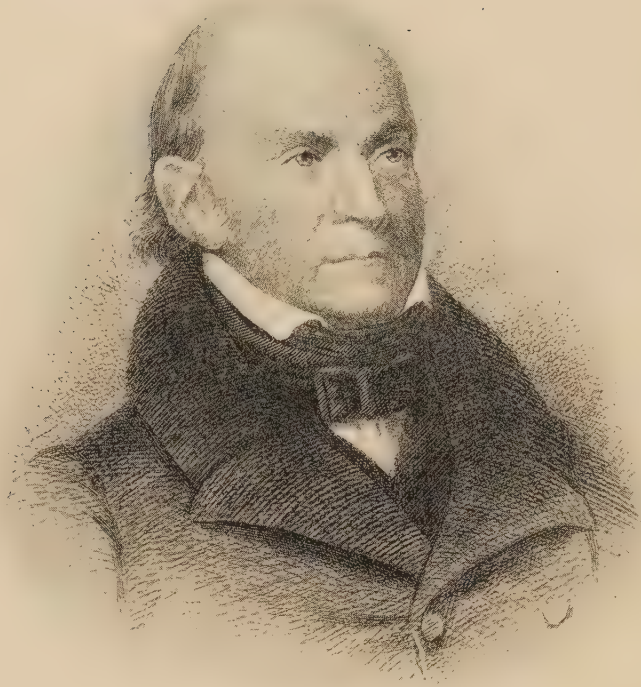
The Presidential election of 1824 was the veriest jumble that had yet taken place. The Presidential candidates were Andrew Jackson, John Quincy Adams, William H. Crawford, and Henry Clay; those for the Vice-Presidency were John C. Calhoun, Nathan Sanford, Nathaniel Macon, Andrew Jackson, Martin Van Buren, and Henry Clay. Every one of these was a Democrat (or Republican, as the name was then known), and so were those who voted for them, there really being but one political party in the country. Jackson received by far the largest popular vote, and of the electoral vote, 99 was declared for him, with 84 for Adams, that for the others being much smaller.

None of the candidates received enough votes to elect him, and the choice therefore fell upon the House of Representatives. There the friends of Clay supported John Q. Adams, who was declared President, with John C. Calhoun as Vice-President.

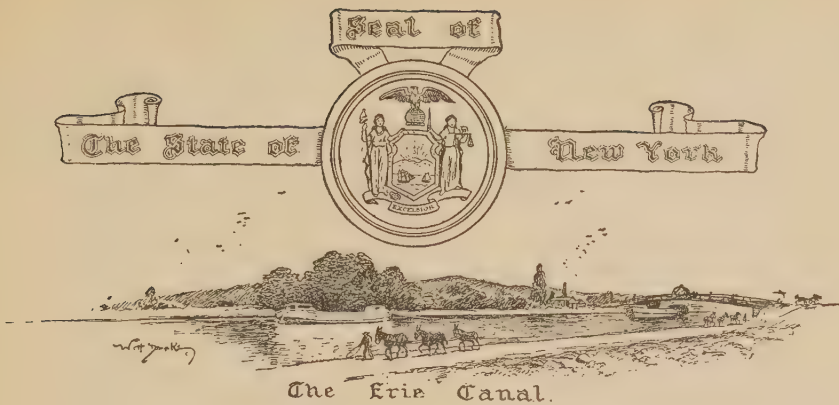
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Tariff
and
Free
Trade

Presi-
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Election
of 1824



J. Q. Adams



CHAPTER XII

J. Q. ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION—1825–1829

[*Author's Note:* With the accession to office of John Quincy Adams, the "era of good feeling," if it had ever really existed, quickly passed. The influence of the people showed itself not only in the sums voted for war and canal construction, but in the clamor for protection, as well as in the preference for Presidents of a new and popular type. An equally significant sign of the new era was the abuse heaped upon Adams for refusing to use the removing power and permitting his political enemies to remain in office. With Jackson's accession, a change in this respect came with a vengeance. The other incidents of Adams' régime were the troubles with the Cherokees of Georgia over their removal from the state, and the anti-Masonic agitation, referred to in the history of the following administration. The special authorities are the "Life of J. Q. Adams" by Seward, Morse, and Josiah Quincy; Lodge's "Daniel Webster," and Sumner's "Andrew Jackson."]'



JOHAN QUINCY ADAMS, who was the son of the second President, was born at Braintree, Massachusetts, July 11, 1767. His brilliant mental powers attracted attention in boyhood, and he received an excellent training at the hands of his parents. He was graduated from Harvard college in 1788. Washington was so impressed by his ability that he made him minister to The Hague, and, later on, minister to Portugal. In 1797, during the Presidency of his father, he was transferred to the Embassy at Berlin. In 1803, the Federalists elected him United States Senator, and six years afterwards he was appointed minister to Russia. He negotiated important treaties with Prussia, Sweden, and Great Britain, and was the leading American commissioner who negotiated the Treaty of Ghent, in 1814. He was Secretary of State through both of Monroe's terms

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The
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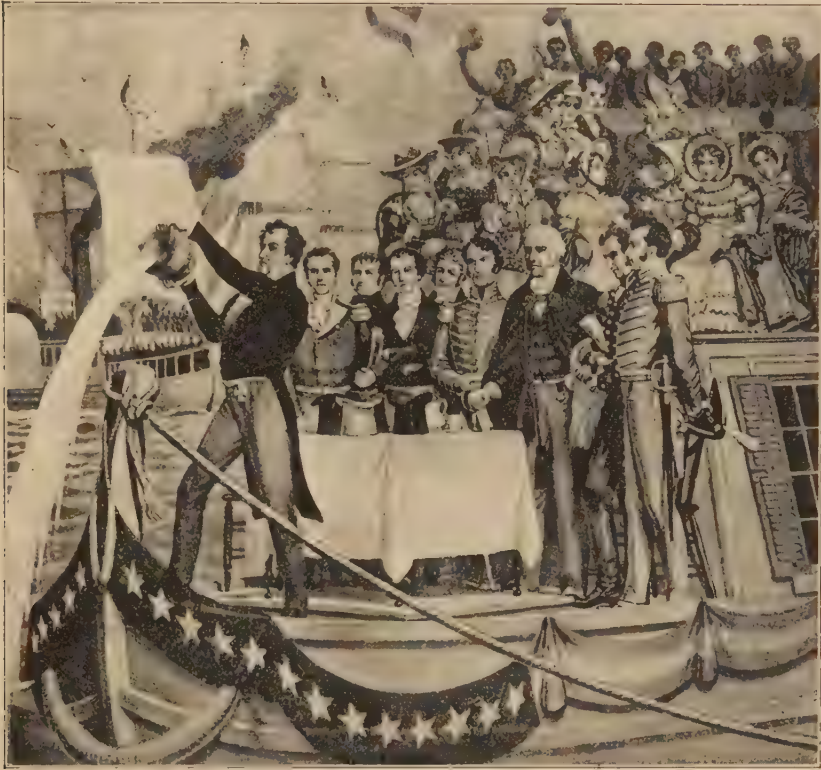
of office, filling the post with marked ability. As has been stated, he was the author of the famous "Monroe Doctrine." Adams appointed Henry Clay his Secretary of State, whereupon the Jackson men declared that in the election a bargain had been made by him and Adams, who thus paid Clay for his support in the "scrub race for the Presidency," to use the phrase of the time. John Randolph of Roanoke spoke of it in his forcible, though sarcastic way, as "a bargain between the Puritan and the blackleg." The charges were vehemently denied, but Randolph's stinging references caused a duel between him and Clay, in which, however, neither was hurt. Southard, McLean, and Wirt, who had been the associates of Adams in Monroe's Cabinet, were retained in the new one, and among all its members substantial harmony prevailed to the close of the administration. His entire Cabinet consisted of Henry Clay of Kentucky, Secretary of State; Richard Rush of Pennsylvania, Secretary of the Treasury; James Barbour of Virginia, and Peter B. Porter of New York, Secretaries of War; Samuel L. Southard of New Jersey, Secretary of the Navy; John McLean of Ohio, Postmaster-General; William Wirt of Virginia, Attorney-General.

Trouble
with the
Chero-
kees

The Cherokees were the most powerful tribe of Indians in Georgia and Alabama, and had reached a high degree of civilization. They had newspapers, schools, and churches, such as were found at a later day among the five civilized tribes of the Indian Territory and Oklahoma. It fretted the Georgians to have these representative red men among them, and, though the Indians possessed a clear title to their lands, the state determined to oust them. The governor had a survey made of new territory for them, but the Indians refused to move across the Mississippi. Georgia resolved that they should go. President Adams interfered to protect the Indians in their rights, and the governor, George M. Troup, declared that he would resist the national government by force. In making this threat, he proudly asserted state sovereignty, appealing meanwhile to "the states, from Virginia to Georgia, and from Missouri to Louisiana, to confederate" for the purpose of resisting the unconstitutional measures of the government. A long discussion followed, but, as might have been anticipated, the quarrel was finally settled by removing the obnoxious red men beyond the Mississippi. This, however, was not fully accomplished until 1835, when the Indians parted with their lands by treaty.

It was during the first year of Adams' administration that the greatest work of internal improvement in this country up to that time was completed. For eight years, De Witt Clinton, who for a part of the period was governor of New York, had been bending all his energies to the construction of a canal between Buffalo and Albany, thus securing water communication between the Great Lakes

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OPENING OF THE ERIE CANAL

and the Hudson, by means of a navigable stream. There was much opposition to the enterprise, which was often ridiculed as "Clinton's Big Ditch." The canal was finally constructed by the State of New York, at a cost of over seven and a half million dollars, and was in 1825 opened for commerce. When water was let into the canal, the news was signaled from Buffalo to Albany by the discharge of cannon—all captured during the Revolution—stationed ten miles apart. In a little more than an hour after the boom of the first gun at the western extremity of the state, the last one at Albany, three hundred

Comple-
tion of
the Erie
Canal

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and sixty-three miles distant, responded. An aquatic procession composed of steamers and canal-boats floated from Albany to the sea, led by the *Chancellor Livingston*, with the governor, De Witt Clinton, and the state officers on board. At New York, it passed down and out the Narrows and anchored near Sandy Hook. There Governor Clinton stepped to the taffrail of his steamer, and, holding aloft a keg of water taken from Lake Erie, poured the contents into the sea, thus completing the marriage of the Atlantic and the Great Lakes. The Erie canal quickly attained a success far beyond that which its most sanguine friends had looked for. Villages and towns sprang up along its banks, and hundreds of cultivated farms appeared, where, until then, all was a desolate wilderness. The receipts for tolls during a period of two or three years were sufficient to pay the whole cost of the construction of the canal. The wonderful result led to the digging of similar inland waterways in many other parts of the country. For years the tolls have been abolished on the Erie canal, and, despite the building of several lines of competing railways, it continues to do a vast carrying business from the West, by means of the lakes and the Hudson river, to New York and the Atlantic.

The
"Ameri-
can Sys-
tem"

Henry Clay was the foremost champion of what in economical and trade matters was called the "American System." A new tariff was formed in 1828, which made the duties higher than before. The revenue thus gained was spent in improving roads, constructing canals, and deepening rivers and harbors. This union of internal improvements and a protective tariff was aptly named the "American System." Some time later it formed the foundation of the Whig party, of which Clay was the chief figurehead and leader. It has to be said for this system, however, that the high protective tariff, while advantageous to the North, was unsatisfactory to the South, because the North at this period had all the factories. The southern planters, therefore, had to pay a higher price for goods imported from abroad, in order that the northern manufacturers might make profits. The friends of the American System replied to this that the cotton-planters received their fair share of the profits, by having better prices and a nearer market for their cotton; but the South was not convinced by this reasoning, nor was she satisfied.

An Im-
pressive
Incident

One of the many interesting incidents in the country's annals occurred on the 4th of July, 1826. It will be recalled that Thomas

Jefferson wrote the Declaration of Independence, and, as he declared, John Adams secured its adoption by Congress on the 4th of July, 1776, just fifty years before. These two great men quarreled in 1801, when Adams acted churlishly because of the election of Jefferson, but they were reconciled and remained warm friends throughout the remainder of their lives. On the 4th of July of this year both men died, at an advanced age, and in the quietness of their own homes. Many people saw a sacred meaning in the sad and impressive event beyond that of a simple coincidence.

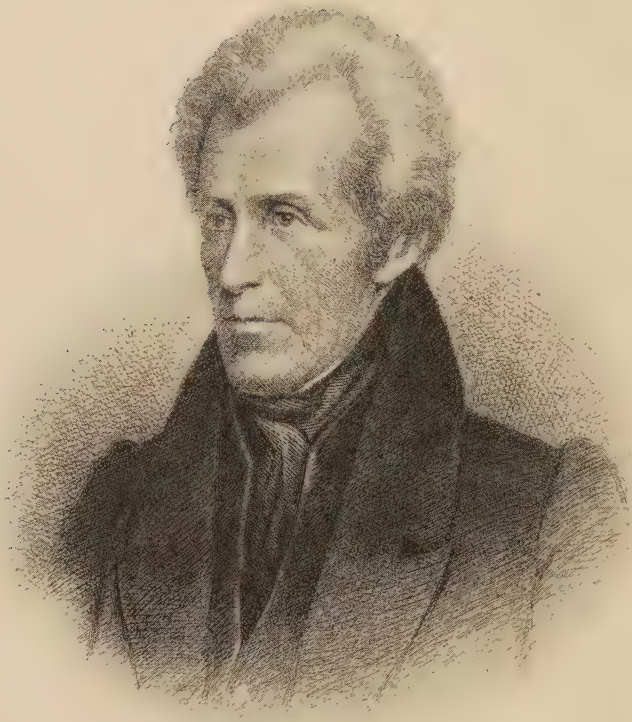
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The varying views on the questions of free trade and protection now led to the formation of political parties, each with a distinct platform or set of principles. Adams and Clay, the supporters of the American System, called themselves "National Republicans," while their opponents took the name of "Democrats." During the following administration, the National Republicans became the Whig party, by which familiar English term they were known for more than twenty years.

The candidates of the National Republicans were John Quincy Adams for President, and Richard Rush and William Smith were rivals for the Vice-Presidency. The Democratic candidates were Andrew Jackson for President, and John C. Calhoun for Vice-President. Jackson received 178 electoral votes against 83 for Adams. Jackson was supported by the whole South, which thus expressed its dislike of the American System. Besides this he was very popular, the consequence chiefly of his military services and of what was thought to be the unfair means by which he was deprived of the Presidency four years before, when he received a larger vote than Adams, whose personality was much less pleasing to the people at large than was that of his successful competitor.

Presi-
dential
Election
of 1829





Andrew Jackson



PERIOD V—CONSOLIDATION AND EXPANSION

CHAPTER XIII

JACKSON'S ADMINISTRATION—1829-1837

[*Author's Note:* The administration of Andrew Jackson furnishes an illustration of the influence that one man can exert in shaping the destinies of a country. Progress, it is true, is by the slow and gradual processes of evolution. When, however, the chief direction of the affairs of state is committed to a man inflexible, courageous, intelligent, progress is hastened, evolution is quickened. To such men is owing the difference between the progress of China and that of Japan. With a weak or vacillating man in Jackson's place during the Nullification period, the story of secession would in all probability have been one of earlier date. With a President less determined, war with France would have been probable; and we should certainly have lacked the sympathy and influence of "perfidious Albion" in settling our difficulty with France. Special references for this period are the "Life of Andrew Jackson" by Eaton, Cobbett, Headley, Kendall, and many others, but especially to the excellent work of James Parton.]



ANDREW JACKSON will always be a striking figure in American history. He was combative, obstinate to the last degree, an unrelenting hater of his enemies, and an unflinching ally and defender of his friends. He seemed never to know the meaning of fear, and was ready to fight, morning, noon or night. He figured in numerous duels, and once, when he appeared to be mortally wounded, stood erect until his opponent died, in order that the latter should not have the satisfaction of knowing that he had hurt him. On one occasion, when acting as a presiding judge, the sheriff was afraid to arrest a

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CONSOLI-
DATION AND
EXPANSION
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1861
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noted desperado, whereupon Jackson sprang from the bench, seized the ruffian by the throat and arrested him himself. He faced, defied, and overawed mobs of desperate men: Hardly a more courageous person ever lived. Jackson was too honest to wrong a man of a penny. The slightest taint or suspicion of dishonesty, even in his closest friend, made Jackson his enemy. Added to this, his life was



A YOUNG REBEL

clean and pure, so that altogether there was much to admire in this extraordinary man. That he was impetuous, self-willed, impatient of opposition, and often tyrannical, was inevitable, for with his nature it could not be otherwise. A truthful summing up of his character is the statement that every man who knew Andrew Jackson either loved him warmly or hated him intensely.

Jackson was born in Union county, North Carolina, March 15,

1767. His father was an Irishman, whose ancestors were Scotch. He died when Andrew was but an infant. The widow was very poor, and struggled hard to support and educate her three boys. When only thirteen years old, Andrew took part in the battle of Hanging Rock. The eldest brother was killed and the other died of a wound inflicted by a British officer, because the boy, when a prisoner, refused to do some menial duty for him. Andrew also sturdily refused, and received a painful blow for his defiance. About this time he had an attack of small-pox and was left to die, but his mother obtained his release and nursed him back to health and strength. Mrs. Jackson died some time afterwards, so that, at the close of the Revolution, Andrew was the only living member of the family. The future President studied law, and at the age of twenty-one settled at Nashville. The Indian outrages now sent him into the field as soldier, and his exploits caused the red men to name him "Sharp Knife" and "Pointed Arrow." In 1796, he became a member of the Tennessee House of Representatives, and the following year was elected to the Senate. He resigned his senatorship at the end of a year and went home, having been appointed a judge of the Supreme Court and major-general of militia. His brilliant services in the Creek war, and in that of 1812, are already known to the reader. Jackson died in 1845, of consumption. During the latter years of his life he became a devout Christian.

It was inevitable that a man with the tempestuous nature of Jackson should have difficulties with his advisers, who, from first to last, were nineteen in number. They were in the order of their appointments as follows:—Secretary of State, Martin Van Buren of New York, Edward Livingston of Louisiana, Louis McLane of Delaware, John Forsyth of Georgia; Secretary of the Treasury, Samuel D. Ingham of Pennsylvania, Louis McLane of Delaware, William A. Duane of Pennsylvania, Roger B. Taney of Maryland, Levi Woodbury of New Hampshire; Secretary of War, John H. Eaton of Tennessee, Lewis Cass of Ohio, Benjamin F. Butler of New York; Secretary of the Navy, John Branch of North Carolina, Levi Woodbury of New Hampshire, Mahlon Dickerson of New Jersey; Postmaster-General, William T. Barry of Kentucky, Amos Kendall of Kentucky; Attorney-General, John McP. Berrien of Georgia, Roger B. Taney of Maryland, Benjamin F. Butler of New

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—
CONSOLIDATION AND
EXPANSION
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—

Presi-
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Jackson

The
Presi-
dent's
Cabinet

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—
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—

The
"Kitchen
Cabinet"

Differ-
ences
in the
Cabinet

York. Some of these men in point of ability were much the inferior of their predecessors in office.

It was Jackson who brought into existence what is known in politics as the "kitchen cabinet." These were confidential advisers, who held no important office. They were Amos Kendall, Duff Green, W. B. Lewis, and Isaac Hill. He looked upon his secretaries as simply clerks, and when in need of counsel went to the gentlemen named. Jackson was bitterly resentful over his former defeat, and began a wholesale removal of office-holders of opposite politics, his doctrine being that "to the victors belong the spoils." William L. Marcy, in a speech in the Senate, in 1831, enunciated the doctrine. During Jackson's first year as President, he made as many as two thousand changes in office, while the whole number made by his predecessors in office had been only seventy-four.

Jackson's vigorous course caused differences in his Cabinet, especially between Vice-President Calhoun and Secretary of State Van Buren, both of whom were ambitious for the Presidency. There was dissatisfaction, too, because of the influence of the so-called "kitchen cabinet," but the greatest trouble arose in connection with the wife of Eaton, his Secretary of War. The latter had married a Mrs. Timberlake, formerly "the captivating Peggy O'Neil," concerning whom there was so much gossip that the wives of the other secretaries refused to recognize her, as did Mrs. Calhoun. Jackson, who, despite his overbearing disposition, was one of the most chivalrous of men towards women, took the side of Mrs. Eaton and maintained this partisan attitude with his usual heedless persistency. Nevertheless Mrs. Donaldson, wife of the President's nephew, then acting mistress of the White House, took the same stand as did both the secretaries. Jackson fumed, scolded his secretaries, and sent Mrs. Donaldson home, but without mending matters. Van Buren sided with Jackson, as did the kitchen cabinet. Finally the quarrel became so violent that the Cabinet went to pieces towards the summer of 1831. Van Buren, still the ally of Jackson, resigned and was appointed minister to England, but his confirmation was defeated by Calhoun, who had the casting vote in the Senate because of a tie in the vote of that body. Jackson, in resentment, determined to make Van Buren his successor to the Presidency, and in this he succeeded.

During the United States Bank troubles, of which we shall learn

presently, McLane, at the head of the Treasury Department, disagreed with Jackson, and was transferred to the State Department. William J. Duane, of Pennsylvania, his successor, refused to obey Jackson's order for the removal of the national deposits, whereupon he was removed. Roger B. Taney was now placed at the head of the Treasury Department, and immediately signed the order. The Senate refusing to confirm Taney's appointment, Levi Woodbury succeeded him, and carried out Jackson's policy to the close of the term. Under Jackson, it was decided that the Postmaster-General should be a Cabinet officer.

Jackson could not have assumed office at a more fortunate time. The country was in the highest degree tranquil and prosperous. The revenues of the government in 1830 were twenty-four millions, with expenses of about half that sum. The public debt was fast diminishing, and in 1835 it disappeared altogether. In 1830, a treaty of commerce was made with Great Britain, which nation opened to us the English ports of the West Indies, in South America, the Bahamas and the Bermudas. Another treaty with Turkey gave us the free navigation of the Black Sea and facilitated trade with the Turkish Empire.

In the preceding chapter, reference was made to the troubles between Georgia and the Cherokee Indians, who had their homes within the borders of the state. The latter part of these troubles occurred during the first term of Jackson. He favored the demand of the white people, who proceeded to take possession of the Cherokee estates which had been assigned to them. It was in 1832 that the Supreme Court decided against the claim of Georgia, and civil war for a time threatened. General Scott, whose mild, persuasive course gained him the name of the "Great Pacificator," secured the removal of the Cherokees, who went to the lands assigned to them, where they afterwards formed one of the five civilized tribes of the Indian Territory.

A study of Jackson's administration will show that it saw the transition of our people from the "old times" to the new. It was the beginning of modern ways of moving, acting, thinking, and doing. This was due to the radical change which steam brought about in the introduction of the locomotive and the railway system. The first railway in this country was constructed in 1826, at one of the granite quarries at Quincy, Mass., and connected that town with

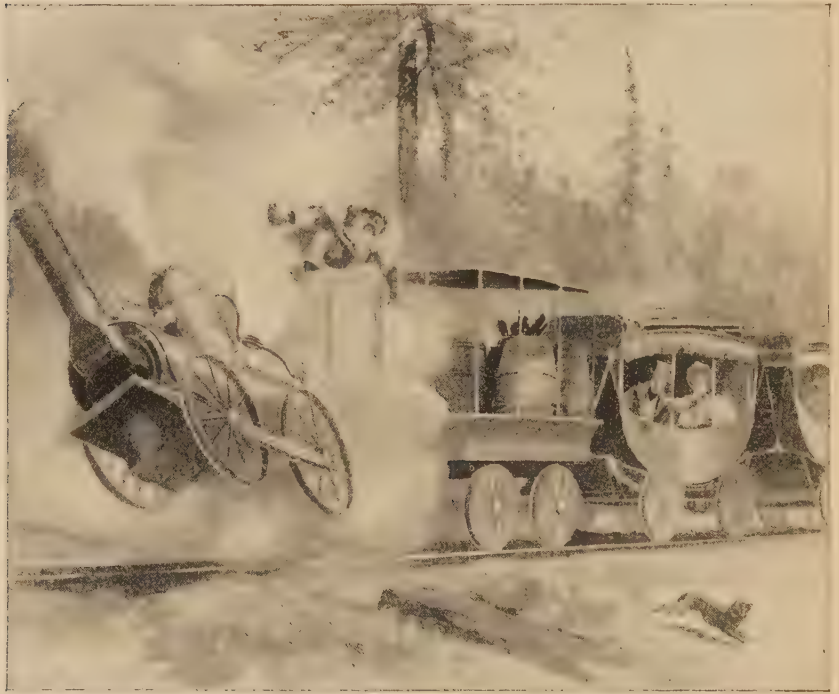
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Great
Prosper-
ity

Removal
of the
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Milton. It was only two or three miles long, and the cars were drawn by horses. Some months later, a similar road, about nine miles long, was operated from the coal mines of Mauch Chunk, Pa., to the Lehigh river. At the West Point foundry, in the city of New York, three locomotives were unloaded in May, 1829. They had come from England, but none of the three was made by George



THE FIRST LOCOMOTIVE EXPLOSION

The
Pioneer
Locomo-
tives

Stephenson, whose locomotive, the *Rocket*, caused so great a sensation in that country some months afterwards. One of them was taken up the Hudson to Rondout, and thence by the new canal to Honesdale, Pa., where it was put together, August 9, 1829, on the track of the canal company's railway between Honesdale and Prompton. This was the first locomotive that ever turned a wheel on a railway track in America. The engineer was Horatio Allen, who died at South Orange, N. J.

The pioneer passenger railway of America was the Baltimore and Ohio. The section between Baltimore and the Point of Rocks was

finished in the summer of 1830. There was no thought at that time of using any other than horse power, but Peter Cooper had, in 1829, constructed an engine after plans of his own. He called it the *Tom Thumb*, and persuaded the manager of the Baltimore and Ohio to allow him to give it a trial. The *Tom Thumb* pulled a carload of passengers at the rate of fifteen to eighteen miles an hour. This was the first American locomotive ever built, and that was the first trip ever made by an American locomotive. The first railroad ever built, with the design of using steam as the motor, was the South Carolina Railroad. Its charter was granted in 1827. The length of the road was 136 miles, Charleston and Hamburg being the termini of the line. An engine, the *Best Friend*, was constructed at the West Point foundry, and made its trial trip November 2, 1830. The trip was successful in every respect, and the *Best Friend* was the first locomotive that ran regularly on a railroad in the United States.

Nicholas W. Darrell had charge of the *Best Friend*, and was the earliest practical locomotive engineer in the United States. It was about the middle of January, 1831, that his negro fireman, to save himself work, fastened down the safety valve of the locomotive on one of her trips. The inevitable result followed: there was an explosion which killed the negro and badly scalded the engineer. The second locomotive to run over the South Carolina Railroad was the *West Point*, which began its career in March, 1831. Nicholas Darrell was the engineer.

The Mohawk and Hudson Railroad was completed between Albany and Schenectady in July, 1831, and the third American locomotive, the *De Witt Clinton*, made its successful trial trip August 9. This railway company seemed to think that they could obtain better locomotives in England than in this country. The first one which arrived in Albany, in August, 1831, had some defect and gave place to the *De Witt Clinton*. In November of that year, the second English locomotive for that road arrived. It was called the *John Bull*. John Hampson ran it for a few months, when he left the road and afterwards became master mechanic of the Camden and Amboy Railroad, at Bordentown. The *John Bull* was a remarkable engine in its way, and did excellent service for more than thirty years. The *John Bull* was carefully preserved as an interesting relic by the Pennsylvania Railway Company. It was exhibited at the Philadelphia Centennial,

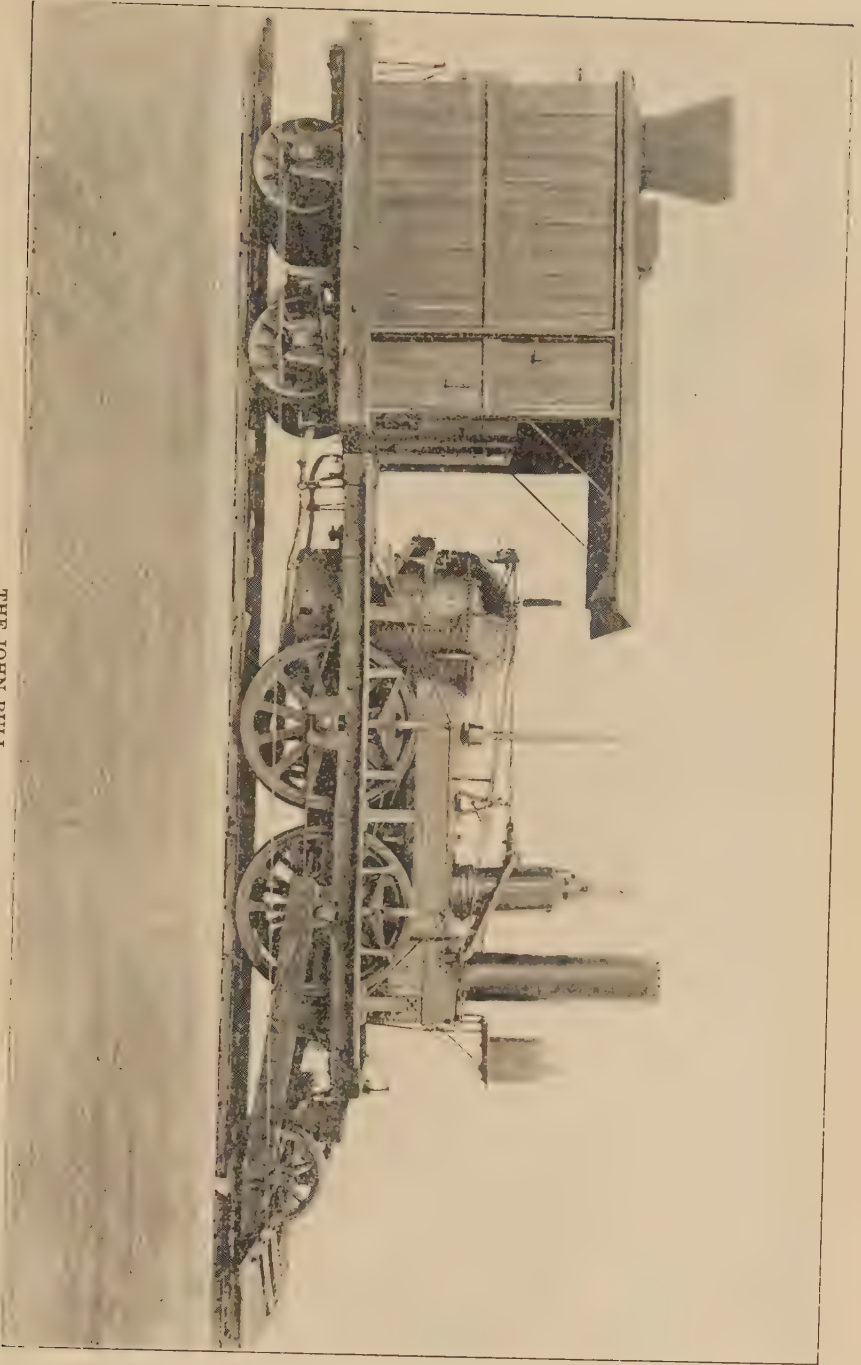
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Early
Steam
Rail-
roading

The John
Bull



THE DE WITT CLINTON

The New York Central's first locomotive, which made its first passenger run August 9, 1831.



THE JOHN BULL.

The covered seat on the tender was for the lookout, this fashion being followed for a number of years.

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in 1876, in charge of its first engineer, and it also attracted much attention at the Columbian Exposition at Chicago, in 1893, but it was not the first locomotive used in the United States, nor was it used on the first American railroad.

Inter-
esting
Railroad
Statistics

A comparison of these early beginnings of railways in the United States with the amazing railroad statistics of the country forty-five years later is very interesting and instructive. There were in 1896 more miles of railway track in America than in all the rest of the world combined. The figures were: America, 226,951 miles; Europe, Asia, Africa, and Australia, 199,514 miles. The number of locomotives in use on American railroads was 36,610, and the number of passenger cars 26,419; the number of baggage and mail cars was 7,891, and the number of freight cars was 1,230,798. As respects mileage, the Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fé, in the year named, operated 6,435 miles; Southern Pacific, 6,761; Northern Pacific, 4,370; Louisville and Nashville, 4,864; Illinois Central, 4,390, with a number of others whose total mileage exceeded 2,000 miles. As respects the volume of gross receipts, that of the Pennsylvania was \$64,627,178; Southern Pacific, \$50,457,024; New York Central, \$45,144,967; Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western, \$44,201,909; Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fé, \$13,590,234; and the St. Paul, Northern Pacific, Baltimore and Ohio, Chicago and Northwest, and the Erie, with from \$20,000,000 to \$30,000,000 each. The railroads of the United States carried in a year 600,000,000 passengers, and transported 800,000,000 tons in freight. The disparity between the two branches of transportation was greater here than in Europe, for the foreign railroads carried twice as many passengers as did the railroads of the United States, whereas the earnings from freight or "goods" trains, as they were called abroad, just about balance. In this country the earnings from freight business were about three times greater than from passenger business. The railroads of the United States earned, from all sources of revenue, some \$1,200,000,000 in a year, of which two-thirds was disbursed in expenses, and the remainder, \$350,000,000, represented the net profit. Two-thirds of this, however, went to pay interest on bonds or guaranteed stock, leaving about \$100,000,000, or one-twelfth of the whole amount earned, for the payment of dividends and for necessary improvements.

Reference has been made to the quarrel of Andrew Jackson with

the United States Bank. The President heartily disliked the institution, believing that it failed to establish a uniform currency, and that its existence was opposed to the spirit of the Constitution. He so expressed himself in his first message to Congress, in December, 1829. Its charter was to expire in 1836, and, in January, 1832, a petition was laid before the Senate, asking for a renewal of the charter. The committee to whom the matter was referred recommended a renewal for fifteen years. The bill passed both branches of Congress in the following summer, but Jackson vetoed it. To make any bill a law, in face of the President's veto, required, as we have learned, a two-thirds vote of both Houses. This could not be obtained. Jackson freely expressed his doubts of the solvency of the institution when the session of 1832-33 opened, and advised the removal of the deposits of public money. These deposits were subject to the order of the Secretary of the Treasury, who was obliged to give his reason to Congress for such removal. As has been stated, President Jackson ordered Secretary Duane to remove the deposits, and when he refused, Jackson removed him. Duane was succeeded by Roger B. Taney, afterwards Chief Justice of the United States, who, it will be remembered, made the transfer to the various banks that had been selected. As usual, Jackson won.

An event in western New York, in 1826, caused a profound sensation throughout the country. In that year, William Morgan, an unprincipled character who had joined the order of Free Masons, published a book in which he professed to expose the secrets of the order. This was a violation of one of the most solemn of oaths, and the indignation against Morgan was intense. He disappeared, and it was never known what became of him. It was claimed by some that he had left the country, and was afterwards seen in South America; but the Masons were accused of murdering him, by placing him in a boat and sending it over Niagara Falls.* In consequence of this, a strong wave of opposition to Free Masonry swept over the country, and in 1832 its enemies nominated William Wirt as their candidate for the Presidency. He received but seven electoral votes and carried only one state. Henry Clay, the nominee of the National Republicans or Whigs, received 49 electoral votes, carrying seven states,

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Jackson
and the
United
States
Bank

The
Morgan
Excite-
ment

Re-elec-
tion of
Jackson

*The late Thurlow Weed gave the name of a man who, he stated, confessed to him that he had helped to kill Morgan in the manner mentioned. Weed was a violent enemy of the order, and made use of the incident in his political schemes.

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while Andrew Jackson had 178 electoral votes and the support of fifteen states. John C. Calhoun had resigned the Vice-Presidency, and Martin Van Buren, an ardent supporter of Jackson in all his political schemes, succeeded to the Vice-Presidency, in accordance with the wishes of his chief.

The
Black
Hawk
War

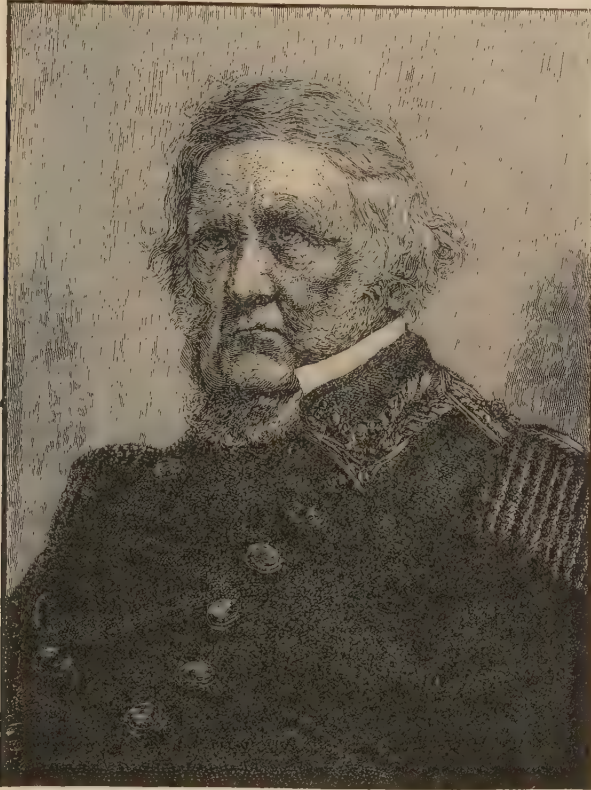
The Sac, Fox, and Winnebago Indians were living at this time in Wisconsin Territory. The Sacs and Foxes, in 1830, ceded their lands in Illinois to the United States, but refused to leave the territory, and Governor Reynolds, of Illinois, called out the military to compel them to go to the section set apart for them west of the Mississippi. Black Hawk, the chief of the Sacs, returned the next year with a formidable force of warriors, but was driven off by the troops on Rock Island. He came again, in March, 1832, with a thousand warriors from the three tribes named, and a horrible war began. The peril became so grave that Generals Scott and Atkinson were sent from Buffalo with troops to Rock Island. It was in 1832 that cholera first visited this country. It broke out among the troops on the steamers from Buffalo and many died. Those who landed were so terrified that they took refuge in the woods, where many perished. Scott was powerless to accomplish anything, but Atkinson pushed on, and in August defeated the Indians and took Black Hawk and his two sons prisoners. They were all sent to Washington, where they had a talk with President Jackson, who persuaded them to sign a treaty, giving up all claim to the lands over which they had fought, and agreeing to move beyond the Mississippi. Black Hawk and a number of chiefs were taken on a tour through the country, that they might be impressed with its power and greatness and see the folly of resisting the white people. They returned to their homes, and that, happily, was the end of the trouble.

The Nullification
Excitement

Congress passed an act in the spring of 1832, imposing additional duties on imported goods, and South Carolina was especially indignant. A convention, held on the 19th of November, and presided over by her governor, declared that the tariff acts were unconstitutional and therefore of no effect. The people asserted that the duties should not be paid, and that any attempt of the government to collect them would be forcibly resisted, followed by the withdrawal of South Carolina from the Union. The local legislature, which met shortly afterwards, commended the action of the convention. Jackson was a believer in state sovereignty, but a still more ardent believer in

the Union. He swore, with customary emphasis, that the Union should be preserved, and that he would hang "as high as Haman" any and everyone who dared to raise his hand against it. He threatened the arrest of Vice-President Calhoun, who resigned his office and went home to South Carolina, from which he was returned as a United States Senator. The President issued a procla-

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GENERAL WINFIELD SCOTT

mation on the 10th of December, denying the right of a state to nullify, or declare inoperative, any act of Congress, and warning those concerned in rebellion that the laws would be enforced by the whole military power, if necessary. He begged the people to cease their opposition, and appealed to citizens everywhere to sustain him in his painful but clear duty. 'This appeal was thrown away on "Caroline, child of the sun." Her governor was authorized to accept the services of volunteers; new arms were bought; fortifications were re-

South
Carolina
Plans
Secession

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 1861

paired, and the young men were drilled. The ladies were also impressed into service; they made palmetto cockades, and urged fathers, brothers, and friends patriotically to stand by their state; the Star-Spangled Banner was displayed Union down, and a flag was made ready to take its place as soon as secession should be proclaimed.

Jackson was not moved by these preparations and revolutionary incitements. He summoned General Scott to Washington, and it was decided to place a strong garrison in Fort Moultrie, in Castle Pinckney, and in the arsenal at Augusta, Georgia. The sloop-of-war *Natchez* and several revenue cutters were sent to Charleston harbor, on learning which the citizens erected fortifications and placed guns in position, asserting that they would blow the war-vessels out of the water.

General
 Scott's
 Tact

Than on this occasion never was the tact and good judgment of General Scott displayed to greater advantage. He treated the citizens in the most friendly manner, carefully avoiding everything that could give offense, invited them to visit the forts, and showed such uniform courtesy to all that he became exceedingly popular. The spirit of resistance, however, remained. Before long, South Carolina saw that she was premature in launching, or even fomenting, a war against the Union. The alarm bell of actual secession did not clang until nearly thirty years later. There were supporters of the President's proclamation even in the Palmetto state; nullification, as it was termed, was condemned by the legislatures of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Delaware, Indiana, Tennessee, and Missouri. A message designed to soothe the angry feelings was sent to South Carolina by special messenger from Virginia. North Carolina and Alabama condemned the tariff as unconstitutional, and expressed the same opinion of nullification. Georgia did likewise, and proposed a convention of delegates from Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Tennessee, and Mississippi to agree upon some means of relief. Meanwhile, Clay came forward with a compromise bill, which provided for a gradual reduction of duties until the 30th of June, 1842, when all were to be cut down to a general level of twenty per cent. Calhoun strongly supported the measure, and it was favored in every quarter. It in time became law, and the war cloud drifted by.

Action
 of the
 States

Jackson's iron will asserted itself at all times. France had agreed

to pay by installments some five million dollars, for the spoliation of our commerce under the Berlin and Milan decrees of Napoleon, but she was so lax in making the payments that Jackson, in his message to the Congress of 1834-35, recommended that reprisals should be made on French shipping. He also directed the American minister in Paris to demand his passports and return home. France was so indignant that she threatened war unless the President apologized, but "Old Hickory" would have died before he thought of doing that. France urged thereto by Great Britain, paid up, as did Portugal when a like vigorous course was taken towards her.

During the stirring days of Jackson's administrations, or soon thereafter, many important inventions were made in this country. For a long time people on both sides of the Atlantic had been trying to make reaping-machines, but the attempts were failures until Cyrus H. McCormick, of Illinois, in 1834, took out a patent. It required ten or twelve years to perfect the machine, but the result was to make farming much easier and far more profitable than ever before. William H. Seward said: "Owing to McCormick's invention, the line of civilization moves westward thirty miles each year." Colt's revolving pistol was patented in 1835, though the principle had been used hundreds of years before. In 1806, a boat-load of anthracite coal was shipped to Philadelphia, but no one knew what to do with it. When, after a time, it was learned that the substance would burn and give out heat, the wonder was great. Its first successful use on railways and steamboats was in 1836 and 1837. As was then found out, it contained so much fuel in a small space that it added greatly to the effectiveness of those means of travel and carrying of freight. The *Savannah*, as already stated, was the first steamboat to cross the Atlantic. The true beginning of successful ocean navigation by steam was in 1838, when the *Great Western* and the *Sirius* crossed the ocean from England to New York. The screw propeller was introduced in 1836 by the famous Swedish inventor, John Ericsson. A great advantage to the navy gained by this invention was that the screw, being placed under water, was out of the reach of the shots of an enemy. The result was that steam war-vessels took the place of sailing vessels, which until then had composed the navies of the world. Since then, and for other good reasons, the use of the screw propeller, instead of paddle-wheels, has become almost universal.

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Important In-
ventions

Ocean
Navigation

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Our forefathers had to use the flint and steel or the sun-glass when they wished to kindle a fire. They were very inconvenient methods, which were done away with by the invention of friction matches. Their general manufacture became common in 1836, and few who have never tried the old method can appreciate the convenience of this small, but most useful, invention. The first lucifer match was



THE FLINT AND STEEL

manufactured in 1829, and the first steel pen in 1830. Envelopes for letter correspondence were first used in this country in 1839. Homeopathy was introduced into the United States in 1825. Life insurance had been introduced in Philadelphia in 1812, though forty years before it had been resorted to in London. Marine insurance came into use in this country in 1721, though it was known in England and made use of by commerce as early as the close of the sixteenth century.

Early
Inno-
vations

The reader has been told how President Jackson compelled foreign nations as well as his own countrymen to respect our flag and our government, and now a little story may here be related illustrating

how he pursued the same policy with people who could lay no claim to civilization.

The trading-ship *Friendship*, of Salem, Massachusetts, was loading with pepper at Quallah Battoo, on February 7, 1831. This Malay town was on the western coast of the large island of Sumatra, in the Dutch East Indies. Several other vessels were there at the

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THE ATTACK ON THE FRIENDSHIP BY NATIVES

time, engaged upon similar business. Captain Endicott, two officers, and four of the crew, had rowed ashore and were weighing pepper. There was no suspicion of anything wrong on the part of the natives. Indeed, everything looked so tranquil that the mate of the *Friendship* broke a rule and permitted the crew of a Malay pepper boat to come on board. At the moment when all was apparently harmonious and there was not the faintest appearance of danger, the natives turned upon and attacked the Americans with the utmost ferocity. The first officer and two sailors were killed, and several others badly wounded; the ship was plundered of specie to the amount of twelve thousand dollars, a dozen chests of opium, the ship's chronometers, nautical instruments, and charts, and the wearing apparel of

The
Quallah
Battoo
Incident

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the crew; in short, almost everything that was movable on board was abstracted and taken from the ship.

After this, the Malays made an attempt to run the vessel ashore, but the ship *James Monroe*, of New York, and the brigs *Palmer*, of Boston, and *Endicott*, of Salem, bore down so fast that the dusky marauders had barely time to reach the beach and find safety in flight. Meanwhile, Captain Endicott, from his position on shore, saw that something was wrong on board his vessel. A second glance told him of its probable nature. He and his companions were in imminent peril, for the plan, which was carefully pre-arranged, included the death of the captain and his entire crew. They displayed a bold front to the threatening natives, and by hard rowing and good fortune placed themselves beyond their reach before they could inflict any harm. This attack upon the trading vessels, as has been stated, was not an impulsive outburst, but a carefully formed plot. One of the acting rajahs, or rulers, was a ringleader, and Chute Dulah, the Achinese rajah, appropriated the opium and specie and refused to give them up.

Stern
Course of
Presi-
dent
Jackson

It took several months to bring intelligence of the outrage to our Government from that far-away corner of the world, but the news arrived at last, and then there was "something doing": Levi Woodbury was Jackson's Secretary of the Navy. On the 9th of August, Commodore John Downes, of the United States frigate *Potomac*, was ordered to repair without delay to Sumatra, by way of the Cape of Good Hope, halting only at such places as the necessities of his vessel might require. He was directed, upon arriving at Quallah Battoo, to take such steps as would give him the fullest and most accurate information, not only concerning the outrage, but of the character of the government. It was impressed upon Commodore Downes that he was to use the utmost care, tact, and delicacy to prevent any injustice or mistake. From the proper authorities he was to demand the restoration of the stolen property or indemnity therefor, and the prompt punishment of the murderers of the mate and two sailors of the *Friendship*. If these demands were refused, Commodore Downes was instructed to do his utmost to seize the murderers and send them to Washington for trial as pirates; to retake the property of the *Friendship*, wherever found; to destroy the boats and vessels of every kind engaged in the piracy, and the forts and dwellings near the scene of the outrage, notifying the



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QUALLAH BATTOO

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The
Potomac
Arrives
at
Quallah
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inhabitants that, if full restitution was not speedily made and forbearance used, other ships-of-war would be sent thither and severer punishment inflicted.

The *Potomac* reached Sumatra on the 5th of February. Commodore Downes anchored about three miles from Quallah Battoo, to prevent the natives from suspecting his errand. At the same time he displayed the Danish colors and disguised the character of his vessel so skillfully that a number of fishermen who boarded her after she anchored did not suspect that she was anything but a merchant vessel. No other ships were near from which the commodore could gather any additional information. He learned, however, that it would be idle to demand restitution, since the specie had been squandered months before, so that if inclined to comply, which was unlikely, the Malays had not the ability to do so. Accordingly, the commander of the *Potomac* actively prepared for their chastisement. A boat which was sent ashore to reconnoiter learned little of the situation of the town and forts, since they were built with strategy and the utmost concealment. The only fort of which accurate knowledge was gained was one near the landing. Waiting until darkness veiled their movements, the *Potomac's* boats were hoisted out and preparations made for going ashore. This was effected by day-break on the following morning, the force, numbering two hundred and fifty men, under the command of Lieutenant Shubrick. A landing was made about a mile and a half to the north of Quallah Battoo. In the early light, the approach of the Americans was not discovered until they were within a short distance of the northernmost fort. Then Lieutenant Hoff was hurried forward with his division to surround the fort, and with orders to storm it in the event of being fired upon.

A
Desperate
Defense

Before reaching the gateway, the lieutenant in charge received a volley, and a fierce engagement began which lasted for two hours. The Malays refused to give quarter, and consequently received none. Nothing could surpass the bravery of the American marines. The palisades surrounding the structure were torn out of the ground and turned into a bridge, over which they dashed into the fort, from which, after a desperate hand-to-hand conflict, the natives were driven out. The Stars and Stripes were hoisted over the defenses, and the Malays fled, twelve killed, and all their women remaining behind. Leaving Hoff in the fort, Shubrick now hurried on with the

remainder of the men, sending two divisions to the left to attack the posts assigned to them in the rear of the town, while Shubrick, with the third division under Lieutenant Ingersoll, and with a six-pounder, marched against the chief fort at the southern end of the town.

Shubrick and his party were discovered when within fifty yards of the fort. A discharge from the six-pounder, loaded with round shot and grape, threw the Malays into confusion, and the assailants dashed forward to the assault. The gate was forced, and, charging into the arena, the place was captured with little resistance, only two of the Malays being killed. Then the inner gate, communicating with a narrow passage, leading to the stronghold of the defenders, was assailed. The stronghold consisted of a high platform, upon which were mounted several cannon, the whole protected by a strong wall. This being forced, it was found that the ladder leading to the platform had been drawn up. In the attempt to climb the parapet, a seaman was killed, and a quarter-gunner, a midshipman, and a sailor were wounded.

By order of Shubrick, the buildings within the arena were fired and two magazines of powder blown up. The capture of the chief fort was completed. The other two defenses were then stormed and captured, and a detachment was left in each, the remainder of the men forming between the fort and the water. From this position they poured a hot fire into the forts, but the Malays displayed such tenacity and bravery that it was not until nearly all of them had been destroyed that the capture was fully effected. This was finally done; the guns were spiked and tumbled from the platform, and the American colors were run up with three hearty cheers. Two men were killed and several seriously wounded in this attack. The loss of the enemy was estimated at one hundred and fifty men, among them being Poolow N. Yamet, the rajah chiefly concerned in the attack upon the *Friendship*. From the Malays were captured a pair of colors, twenty-six stands of arms, and a brass field-piece. A number of proas, or native boats, were burned on the stocks, the cannon were spiked and thrown over the parapets, the powder was destroyed, and the town itself reduced to ashes. The outrage on the trading vessel *Friendship* was perpetrated on the 7th of February, 1831, and one day short of a year afterwards, the offending town, by way of punishment, was wiped from the face of the earth.

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A Severe
Punish-
ment

An
Outrage
Avenged

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—

In the latter part of 1835, the Seminoles of Florida began a war against the settlers on the frontier. It has been shown that many runaway slaves took refuge in the swamps and fastnesses of that region, where the Indians gave them shelter, and whither it was impossible for their owners to trace or capture them. By the treaty of Payne's Landing, made in 1832, it was agreed that a party of chiefs



OSCEOLA'S INDIGNATION

War
with the
Semi-
noles

should visit the land beyond the Mississippi, to which our government wished the Seminoles to remove, and, if they were satisfied, such removal should follow. The Seminole war was caused by the dispute over the meaning of the pronoun "they." Seven chiefs composed the delegation which made the journey of inspection. The agreement was that "should *they* be satisfied with the character of the country," the removal was to take place within three years after the ratification of the treaty. President Jackson contended that "they" meant the members of the delegation; the contention of the remainder being that it meant the whole tribe. No one except the seven



MAJOR DADE'S BATTLEGROUND

PERIOD V
CONSOLIDATION AND
EXPANSION
1820
TO
1861
—
Osceola

chiefs was satisfied. Osceola, a famous half-breed leader, expressed his opinion of the treaty by driving his hunting-knife through the document and the top of the table on which it rested. The anger against the seven chiefs was so intense that two of them were killed by their own people. Osceola and Micanopy, the head chiefs of the Seminoles, were the leaders of the enraged Indians, and declared that they would die before they would leave their country.

The President sent General Wiley Thompson to Florida in 1834, with orders to remove the Seminoles, by force, if necessary. He notified them that their annuities would be stopped if they did not go, but nothing would induce them to consent. Osceola was so defiant that General Thompson put him in irons. The chief professed penitence and was shortly afterwards released; but he was filled with rage at the indignity he had suffered, and nursed an implacable feeling of revenge. Although he signed the treaty, he and his warriors burst upon the exposed settlements with fury, and spread desolation and death along that portion of the frontier. The danger was so critical that it was feared that General Clinch, stationed at Fort Drane, would be massacred with all his command. Major Dade was sent from Fort Brooke, at the head of Tampa Bay, with about one hundred and forty horsemen, to his relief. When they reached the Big Withlacoochee, they ran into an ambush of Seminoles and negroes, and Major Dade and half his men were instantly killed. The remainder made the best defense they could, but were overwhelmed, all being killed except two, who afterwards died of their wounds. On the day of this massacre, Osceola and several of his warriors were in the woods around Fort King. General Thompson and nine of his friends were dining at a house two hundred yards from the fort. The day was warm and the windows were open. Suddenly Osceola and his warriors poured a volley into the room. General Thompson and four of his guests fell to the floor and were scalped before help could be sent from the fort.

The war now spread to the villages of Georgia and Alabama. To aid in repressing it, General Scott, in 1836, took command and actively pressed operations, but the Seminoles were not conquered. General Zachary Taylor assumed charge in the following year, and, though he administered a severe defeat at Lake Okeechobee, the Indians could not be driven out of the swamps. General Taylor had a number of bloodhounds imported from Cuba, with the view of

The
Dade
Massa-
cre



TREACHEROUS CAPTURE OF OSCEOLA

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—
CONSOLIDATION AND
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1829
TO
1861
—

Viola-
tion of
the Flag
of Truce

tracking the hostiles, but the keen-scented animals refused to take the trail of an Indian and the experiment was a failure. Osceola and seventy of his warriors by invitation visited the camp of General Jesup, in October, 1837. They were under the protection of a flag of truce, but were made prisoners and Osceola was sent to Charleston, where he died in Fort Moultrie in 1838. The Seminole War seemed as if it would never end. The courage and persistency of those mongrels excited the wonder as well as the alarm of the whole country. At one time, it looked as if the Floridas would be overrun and all the white people driven out. Finally, in 1842, it fell to the fortune of General William J. Worth to terminate the war. That officer destroyed the crops of the Seminoles and pressed them so hard that they surrendered. Those that were left gathered their families together and passed beyond the Mississippi. The war had lasted seven years, and cost in money forty million dollars, besides many valuable lives.

Great
Fire in
New
York
City

The worst fire in the history of the city of New York, up to that time, occurred on the night of December 16, 1835. It had its origin in Merchant street, and spread with great rapidity. The night was bitterly cold and the wind very high. Water had to be taken from the river, and as it was pumped into the hose by the volunteer firemen (steam fire-engines were unknown in those days, nor was there a paid fire department), it froze and partly checked the flow. The firemen stamped on the hose to break the ice, but could do nothing to repress the flames. Seventeen blocks, or six hundred and forty-eight buildings, in all covering thirteen acres, were destroyed.

Admis-
sion of
Arkan-
sas and
Michigan

Arkansas was admitted to the Union on June 15, 1836. Its name is derived from an extinct tribe of Indians. Chevalier de Tonti discovered and settled the region in 1685. When Missouri was admitted, Arkansas was organized into a territory, comprising the present state and a part of Indian Territory. Michigan, the twenty-sixth state, was admitted January 26, 1837. Its name likewise has an Indian origin, meaning "Great Lake." In the latter part of the seventeenth century it was visited by missionaries and fur-traders. Originally a part of the Northwest Territory, it was erected into a separate territory in 1805. Cadillac founded Detroit in 1701.

Several noted people died during Jackson's administration. Among these was ex-President Monroe, who passed away on the 4th of July,



CRUSHING DEFEAT OF THE INDIANS

PERIOD V	1831. He was the third President to die on Independence Day.
CONSOLIDATION AND EXPANSION 1829 TO 1861	His remains rest in Hollywood cemetery, Richmond, whither they were removed in 1858. In 1832, Charles Carroll, of Carrollton, Maryland, the last surviving signer of the Declaration of Independence, died at the age of ninety-six years. John Randolph, of Roanoke, whose biting wit made him famous in Congress, died in Philadelphia in 1833, while on his way to visit Europe. Chief Justice Marshall passed away in 1835, at the age of fourscore, and ex-President Madison died June 28, 1836. Madison was the last survivor of the signers of our country's Constitution.
Deaths of Prominent People	The country made wonderful strides in prosperity during the eight years of Jackson's administration. In 1835, the whole public debt was discharged and a surplus accumulated in the treasury. This was divided among the states, none of which, however, needed it, for each, too, was prosperous. Crops were abundant, and the area under cultivation was rapidly increasing. Money was freely spent in the construction of railways and canals, manufactures multiplied, and banks doubled their capital. It now looked as if everyone was to become rich. Better than all this (for the era of seeming material prosperity proved to be unreal, and was soon to be followed by the worst monetary panic the country had ever known) was the growth of the public-school system. The self-evident fact had impressed itself upon the people that the men who were to vote and control the destinies of the country should do so with intelligence. In nearly all the states public schools were established. Massachusetts made further advances by originating a system of normal school education, by which young men and women were to be trained to become teachers.
Great Prosperity	We were beginning, too, to gain a place in literature. Bryant, Halleck, and Drake were recognized as poets, while still others came forward to win laurels from their grateful countrymen. They were Whittier, Longfellow, Emerson, and Oliver Wendell Holmes, together with Edgar Allan Poe, Hawthorne, a master of classical English, and Bancroft and Prescott, the historians. Fenimore Cooper was admired on both sides of the Atlantic for his American novels of the Indians, the woods, and the ocean, and Noah Webster issued the first edition of his English dictionary, upon which he had been engaged for more than a generation. The newspaper quickly felt the impetus of modern thought and activity. The first paper of
Attainments in Literature	

large circulation and small price was the New York *Sun*, which appeared in 1833, followed two years later by the New York *Herald*. When Jackson became President, there was not a mile of railway in the United States. At the end of his last term, there were three thousand miles in operation. Improved steamboats passed up and down the Mississippi, the Ohio, and other rivers. Cities, towns, and villages began to spring up in the West, while the growth of the East kept pace with the great strides of the era.

President Jackson's last official act was characteristic. Speculation in western land areas had become so great that the Treasury Department, on July 11, 1836, with a view to checking it, sent out a circular which required the collectors of public revenues to accept nothing but gold and silver in payment. This hampered business so much, that Congress, early in 1837, partially repealed the edict, though Jackson kept the bill in his possession until after Congress adjourned, and thus prevented its becoming a law.

President Jackson was the hero of innumerable hairbreadth escapes, but that which he experienced on the 30th of January, 1835, was regarded by many as approaching the supernatural. On the day named he was at the Capitol, at the public funeral of Mr. Warren R. Davis of South Carolina. During the delivery of the funeral sermon, Richard Lawrence, a painter, living in Washington, entered the hall of the House of Representatives, but, before its close, took his stand on the eastern portico, near one of the columns. The President on his way to his carriage approached within three steps of Lawrence, who, drawing a pistol from beneath his cloak, leveled it at the President and pulled the trigger, but the percussion cap alone exploded, the sharp report leading many to think that the weapon had been discharged. Seeing that it had failed, Lawrence instantly brought a second pistol to a level and pressed the trigger of that, with the muzzle almost against the breast of the President. Strange to say, that also missed fire. Jackson raised his cane and rushed at the assassin, who was knocked down and arrested. It was hard work to prevent the President from taking summary vengeance on the assassin. "Let me go!" he shouted above the din; "I can take care of myself. Let me get at him!" He became calmer in a few minutes, and he was persuaded to go to the Capitol, where he showed the same coolness and self-possession that he had displayed so often on the field of battle. The assailant was thrown into jail.

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Jackson's
Last
Official
Act

A
Hair-
breadth
Escape

PERIOD V

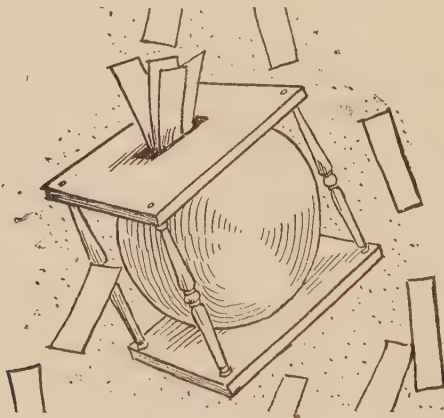
CONSOLI-
DATION AND
EXPANSION
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TO
1861
—

He gave as his excuse that Jackson had killed his father. Investigation proved that there was no truth in the charge, for his father had died a natural death. The trial left no doubt that he was insane. He was sent to an asylum, where he spent the remainder of a long life. The pistols were examined by experts and found to be of perfect mechanism and loaded almost to the muzzle. They were tested again and again with some of the remaining powder, balls, and caps found on the prisoner, and never once missed fire. How both of them came to do so when aimed at the President was more than anyone could understand, but it was attributed to the marvelous good fortune which seemed to follow Andrew Jackson from his birth to his death at an advanced age.

Presi-
dential
Election
of 1836

There was no lack of candidates for the Presidency in 1836. Martin Van Buren had been an unwavering supporter of Jackson from the first, and agreed to continue his policy. It was Jackson's wish that he should be his successor, and he therefore received the Democratic nomination. The Whig candidates were General William Henry Harrison, Hugh L. White, Daniel Webster, and W. P. Mangum, with Colonel Richard M. Johnson, the Democratic nominee for Vice-President, and Francis Granger, John Tyler, and William Smith the Whig candidates for the latter office.

Van Buren received 170 electoral votes; Harrison 73; White 26; Webster 14, and Mangum 11. Van Buren was elected, but Johnson, the Vice-Presidential candidate with him, had but 147 votes. This threw the election of Vice-President into the Senate, which chose Johnson by a vote of 33 to 16 against Granger.





CHAPTER XIV

VAN BUREN'S ADMINISTRATION—1837-1841

[*Author's Note:* Martin Van Buren was probably an abler statesman than Jackson, his predecessor, whose influence made him President. Unfortunately for Mr. Van Buren, his administration covered the panic of 1837, for which he was in no way responsible. The result was that when, in 1840, he was renominated, he was disastrously beaten at the polls. Such occurrences illustrate the essentially unfair and unreasoning character of men in national masses. There seems to be, too, a periodicity about "panics" that suggests a discouraging truth to those optimistic thinkers who sigh for an acceleration of human progress. The panic of 1837 was followed by that of 1857, and that again by those of 1873 and 1892. It would seem that no lesson to the people at large, however it may be emphasized by suffering, disaster, and even death, has any corrective influence on political movements after the lapse of about twenty years. It is a humiliating fact, but it is none the less a fact. Special reference is made for this period to the authorities quoted at the head of the preceding chapter, with the "National Portrait Gallery of Distinguished Americans."]



MARTIN VAN BUREN was born at Kinderhook, N. Y., December 5, 1782. Since this was a few days after the signing of the preliminary articles of peace between Great Britain and her former colonies, Van Buren was the first President not born a British subject. His education was limited; he studied law, however, and early became a political power. He was a member of the state senate in 1812, and again in 1816. From 1815 to 1819 he was attorney-general of New York, and a United States Senator from 1821 to 1828, when he resigned to accept the governorship of his state. Jackson made him Secretary of State in 1829, and two years later he sent him as minister to England. His nomination for that post, however, was, in the following December, rejected by the Senate,



Wm. B. Allen

through the influence of Clay, Calhoun, and Webster, who thought that he showed a timid course toward England in the question relating to trade between her West Indian colonies and the United States. Van Buren, therefore, had to return home, but soon was "vindicated," for he was elected Vice-President and presided over the body that rejected his nomination as minister to England.

Van Buren was an ardent believer in state sovereignty, but opposed universal suffrage. He held that every voter should be a householder. He opposed Jackson when he first ran for the Presidency, but was shrewd enough to foresee the brilliant future of that remarkable man, and became his supporter. To Van Buren, more than to any other person, was due the support which New York gave to Jackson in 1828. Having won the friendship of "Old Hickory," the latter paid him abundantly, not only by political appointments, but by making him President. He withdrew from the Democratic party in 1848, and formed the "Free Democratic or Free Soil" party, which, however, amounted to little. He soon after retired from politics, and died at Kinderhook, in 1862.

Van Buren naturally accepted most of Jackson's Cabinet. His appointments were: Secretary of State, John Forsyth of Georgia; Secretary of the Treasury, Levi Woodbury of New Hampshire; Secretary of War, Joel R. Poinsett of South Carolina; Secretary of the Navy, Mahlon Dickerson of New Jersey; Postmaster-General, Amos Kendall of Kentucky, and John M. Niles of Connecticut; Attorney-General, Benjamin F. Butler of New York, Felix Grundy of Tennessee, and Henry D. Gilpin of Pennsylvania. Van Buren's administration opened at a most unfavorable period for him. Much of the prosperity of the closing days of Jackson's administration was superficial. His despotic acts bore their inevitable fruit after he left office. Such an era of wild speculation had never before been known. The result of Jackson's fight with and final defeat of the United States Bank was the formation of hundreds of new banks in the different states. Most of these had little or no capital to pay the notes which they issued. Their mode of operating was as impudent as it was immoral; they would have a bushel or two of cheap bills printed, with which they would offer higher prices for lands than others could afford to pay in gold or silver. Then these "wild-cat" bankers would sell the lands thus bought, for good money. If their own bills came back for redemption, the managers would "fail," go

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The
Presi-
dent's
Cabinet

"Wild-
Cat"
Banks

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DATION AND
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—

The
Crash

elsewhere, and start other fraudulent banks. Hundreds of thousands of dollars issued by these "wild-cat" banks were paid to government agents for public lands. The losses fell upon the people, and the system was an atrocious fraud. The specie circular was sent out in 1836. Since the government agents from that time forward could accept nothing but gold and silver in payment for lands, "wild-cat" bank-notes became worthless for such payments. The holders of them hurried to the respective banks to have them redeemed with coin, but the banks were unable to do so. The honest bankers tried to raise the money by selling their property. They had to offer it at a much lower price than had been ruling. Everybody was frightened, and there was a demoralizing scramble to sell, with few seeking to buy. The confusion spread. Men who had counted themselves wealthy found now that they could not pay their debts, and those who owed them money were unable also to meet their obligations. Banks suspended specie payments or closed their doors; business men began failing, and the "hard times," or great panic of 1837, burst upon the country with paralyzing effect.

"Hard
Times"

The distress was great. A man with his pockets full of bank-notes could not buy a meal; millionaires of one day became beggars the next; mercantile houses toppled and fell; factories and places of business were closed; no work was to be had, and many people were threatened with starvation. During the first two months of the panic (March and April, 1837), the failures in New York and New Orleans amounted to one hundred and fifty million dollars. Only a brief while before, the government had such an abundance of money that it divided it among the states, but now it had positively no money at all. The deposits had been removed to the state banks, which could not furnish them to the government. Eight states were bankrupt, and the government could not pay the interest on its bonds. All this confusion and distress was the result of the fevered speculation and unbusiness-like methods which prevailed during the latter part of Jackson's term. He sowed the wind, and the country now reaped the whirlwind.

Reme-
dial
Meas-
ures

The condition became so bad that the President convened Congress on the 4th of September to take counsel together. A law was passed allowing the Treasury to issue its own notes to the amount of ten millions. This was the sub-treasury system, which was unpopular at first. It was passed in 1840, repealed in 1841,

but re-enacted in 1846. It proved to be a good law, and was kept in force. These measures brought partial relief. The country was too rich in its resources to be embarrassed for any length of time. Monetary panics seem to be inevitable at certain periods; but, as a rule, they are caused by unsound business methods. People learned wisdom from their dear experiences and to avoid the mistakes that had brought them to the verge of ruin. The tide of emigration continued to flow westward; new railways were constructed, and, as the second year passed, the panic gradually subsided until, as may be said, only the scars of its wounds remained.

The "Patriot War" broke out in Canada in 1837. Each province (Lower and Upper Canada) had its governor, an executive council nominated by the Crown, a legislative council appointed for life in the same manner, and a representative assembly elected every four years by the people. Matters were badly adjusted, and both provinces became strongly opposed to their governors and councils. Finally the people demanded an elected legislative council and full control of all branches of the government. The British Parliament was ready to make some concessions, but not all that were asked. Americans, and especially those on the New York border, sympathized with the insurgents.

The leaders of the insurrection in Toronto fled to the United States, and one, named Mackenzie, with twenty-five men, including some citizens of Buffalo, whom he persuaded to join him, seized, December 12, 1837, the Canadian Navy Island, in the Niagara river, established a provisional government, and issued paper money. The loyalists of Canada attempted to capture the place, but failed. On the night of December 29, they cut loose and attacked the steamer *Caroline*, killed twelve of the defenders, set the boat on fire, and sent it over the falls.

The incident caused great excitement both in England and this country, and for a time serious trouble impended. President Van Buren issued a proclamation of neutrality, forbidding all interference in Canada, and General Wool was sent to the northern frontier with a military force strong enough to compel obedience to the proclamation. The insurgents on Navy Island were forced to surrender, the place being abandoned January 13, 1838. This ended the flurry.*

*Jacques Cartier, the discoverer of Canada, heard the natives apply the name *Kannatha* (village) to their settlements, and supposing it referred to the whole

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Discontent
in
Canada

Surrender of the
Insurgents

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Unjust
Preju-
dices

Quiet being restored, the Americans turned their attention to the impending presidential election. It must be said of Van Buren's administration that while it was unfortunate and one of the least brilliant in our history, it was such because of the sins of his predecessor. As has been stated, Jackson sowed the wind and Van Buren reaped the whirlwind.

We are often swayed unjustly by impulse and prejudice. A great deal of that which goes awry is laid by the unthinking masses at the door of the political party in power. Absurd as it may sound, there was living, at one time, a well-known family in one of the principal states, whose members insisted that poor fishing invariably followed the success of a certain political party. For more than twenty years the voters of this family conscientiously cast their ballots against the ticket whose triumph, as they viewed it, threatened material injury to them.

As we have shown, the country was painfully wrenched during Van Buren's administration by the unprecedented hard times. While many laid the blame where it belonged, it cannot be said that the popularity of "Old Hickory" suffered one jot, though little remained to Van Buren.

Nomina-
tion of
General
Harrison

The Whigs met in convention at Harrisburg, December 4, 1839, and all were full of enthusiasm. Henry Clay, popularly known as "Harry of the West," was long the idol of an aggressive minority, which included some of the foremost citizens of the land. His repeated failures to attain the Presidency were as bitterly disappointing to his friends as to himself, and the remark was made more

country, he so used it, hence the name of Canada. In 1867, Upper and Lower Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick were federally united into one Dominion of Canada, under the crown of the United Kingdom, with a constitution similar to that of the mother-country and with Ottawa for its capital. All the enormous territory which the Hudson Bay Company held under a charter issued by Charles II. was transferred to the imperial government in December, 1869, and was received into the Dominion the following year. The portion of the territory known as the Red River Settlement was in 1870 erected into the province of Manitoba. The district to the north and east of Manitoba became known as Keewatin, and the vast region towards the northwest was organized as a territory in 1875, under the name of the Northwest Territory. British Columbia became a member of the Dominion in 1871, and Prince Edward's Island in 1873.

There has been at times a considerable sentiment, both in Canada and the United States, in favor of the annexation of the Dominion to this country; but the majority of the people of Canada were strongly loyal to England, whose rule was so liberal and just that annexation was not found feasible.

than once: "He is too good a man to be President." These friends were determined to make him their standard-bearer in 1840; and they were in high hopes when, on the first ballot, he received 103 votes to 93 cast for General Harrison and 57 for General Scott.

Four ballots followed, with Harrison forging steadily ahead. On the fifth ballot the nomination went to him, with John Tyler, of Virginia, the nominee for the vice-presidency. Again the friends of Clay were disappointed; but they took heart in the fact that their idol was still in his prime, and they were determined that the honor should come to him four years later, as proved to be the case.

On the 4th of May, the Democratic convention assembled in Baltimore, which for a long period was the favorite meeting-place of the presidential conventions. Van Buren was the "logical candidate" of his party, and was unanimously renominated. No candidate was selected for the vice-presidency, but later Colonel Richard M. Johnson and James K. Polk, of Tennessee, were named in several of the states for that office.

It is worth noting that on the day the Democratic convention met, the Whigs held a popular gathering in Baltimore. Twenty thousand young men were present, representing all parts of the country. Massachusetts sent more than a thousand. They were an enthusiastic assemblage; and when the hurrahing multitude adjourned, it was agreed to meet in Washington on the 4th of March following, to indulge in cheering at the inauguration of General Harrison.

Reference is proper in this place to the action of the "Liberty" party, or Abolitionists. Toward the close of the Revolution, most of the northern states provided for emancipation, immediate or gradual. The American Colonization Society, as stated elsewhere, was organized in 1816, its object being to promote emancipation and to colonize the freed negroes in Africa. William Lloyd Garrison, however, in 1829, began his labors, and imparted a new character to the work. He demanded the immediate and total abolition of slavery throughout the country, regardless of all laws and the Constitution. His extreme views caused a division among the Abolitionists, Garrison and his partisans refusing all connection with political action under the Constitution, and advocating disunion, in order that the country might purge itself of the sin of slavery.

Garrison was a powerful agitator and unceasing in his labors.

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Whig
Enthusiasm

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The
Aboli-
tionists

Abolitionists like him were as unpopular in many sections in the North as they were south of Mason and Dixon's line. They were mobbed in Philadelphia, Boston, and other prominent cities, Garrison himself narrowly escaping lynching, while in more than one instance bloodshed was the result of the excitement.

The other wing of the Abolitionists, under the name of the "Liberty" party, advocated the use of the ballot to bring about the emancipation of slavery. In 1840, they put forward for the first time a presidential candidate in the person of James G. Birney, who was renominated four years later. Birney was a Kentuckian, born in 1792, and died in 1857. He became a lawyer and politician and an enthusiastic Abolitionist, serving for a number of years as editor of *The Philanthropist*, and was secretary of the National Anti-Slavery Society.

Demo-
cratic
Nominee
for
Vice-
Presi-
dent

Richard M. Johnson, the Democratic nominee for Vice-President, has been referred to in the account of the death of the great Indian leader Tecumseh. He was born in Kentucky in 1781, and was a member of the state legislature in 1804, serving as representative from the state in Congress from 1807 to 1819, as United States Senator from 1819 to 1829, and again as representative from 1829 to 1837, when, as will be remembered, he was elected Vice-President under Van Buren. He was a gallant officer, but suffered socially because of his marriage to a woman who had a slight taint of negro blood in her veins. He died in 1850.

All people whose memory reached as far back as 1840 never forgot the presidential election of that year. Nothing like it was ever witnessed before, and some of its features have never been repeated. It was hardly under way when the Baltimore *Republican*, a leading Democratic paper, in the course of a slurring article, referring to General Harrison, stated that if some philanthropic person would pension him with a few hundred dollars and give him a barrel of cider, he would sit down in his log-cabin and be content for the remainder of his life.

No one needs to be reminded of the power of a simple expression in a time of political excitement, for a notable example occurred as late as 1844. The sneer at General Harrison was seized upon as the war-cry of his supporters. Log-cabins sprang up like mushroom in village, city, town, and at country cross-roads. The quanti-

ties of hard cider drunk was appalling, and gave a melancholy setback to the temperance cause.

The changes rung upon "Tippecanoe and Tyler too" were endless. There was a snow-storm of campaign song-books, and the skies were crimsoned at night by the glare of thousands of bonfires. Men who never essayed to sing made the days and nights ring with their ardent attempts in that line.

Many characteristic anecdotes and reminiscences have come down to us of those stirring days. It is said that, in General Harrison's own state, an enthusiastic deacon attempted to "adapt" one of Watts' hymns to a campaign song. While no exception could be made to the orthodoxy of the words which he lined out at prayer-meeting, the meter limped, and the impatient brothers and sisters in their ardor discarded the stanzas altogether, and awoke the echoes with a genuine campaign song, the deacon himself soon assuming the leadership.

The excitement increased as the day of election drew near. The thoughtful Democrats saw how the tide was setting, and there was some justification for the declaration of one of the disgusted leaders that the whole Whig population of the United States had gone on a colossal spree, from which they were not likely to recover until the next presidential election.

When the result was officially announced in November, it was found that the electoral vote was: Whigs 234; Democrats 60; Liberty party, none. Harrison's popular vote was 1,275,017; Van Buren's 1,128,702; Birney's 7,059.

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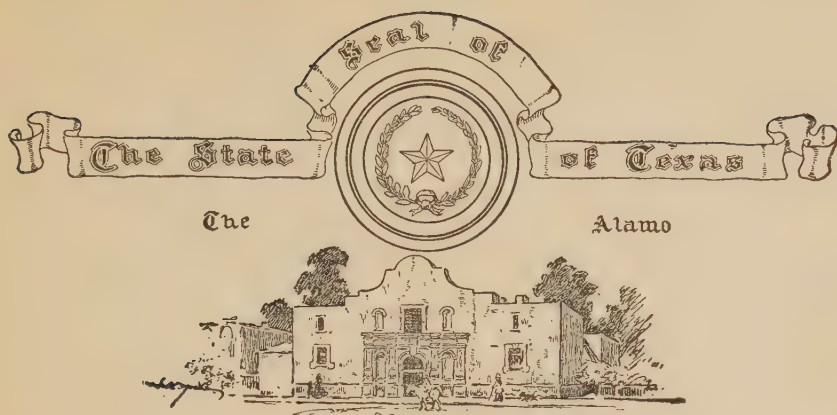
"Tippecanoe
and
Tyler
too"

Election
of
General
Harrison





W. H. Harrison



CHAPTER XV

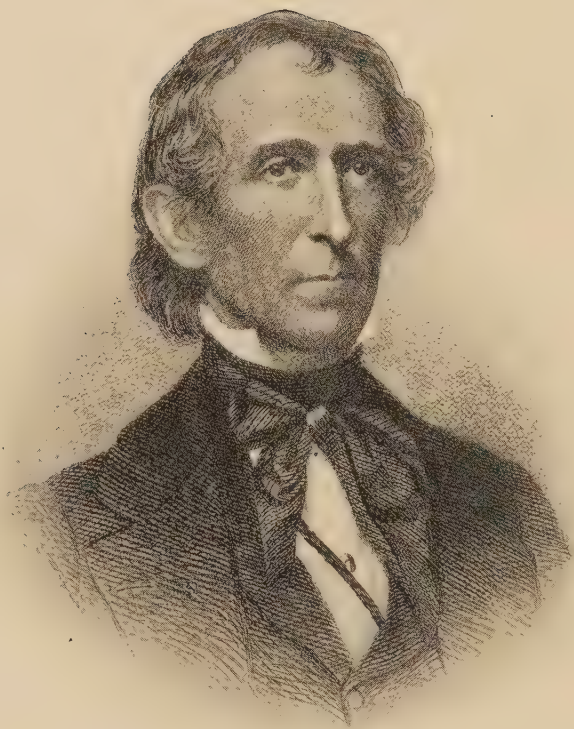
ADMINISTRATIONS OF HARRISON AND TYLER 1841-1845

[*Author's Note:* Among the many interesting occurrences during the Harrison-Tyler administration, none is more likely to arouse the interest and enthusiasm of a patriot than the invention of the telegraph in connection with its subsequent development. At first two wires were used to complete the electric circuit. Later it was discovered that the earth would serve instead of the return wire. Then came slowly the ocean cable, duplex telegraphy, which rapidly developed into multiplex telegraphy, in which one wire is made to carry without confusion many different messages. Next we had the telephone with all that it means in the development of modern communication and commerce; then the electric motor rendering travel in our cities easy and rapid. Then we began to have our houses heated in winter and cooled in summer by the same mysterious force. Indeed no scientist had the prevision to anticipate the wonderful possibilities of this agency in developing the resources of the world and ameliorating the condition of the human race. For special references see Curtis, Lanman, and Knapp's "Life of Daniel Webster"; Par-ton's "Famous Americans of Recent Times"; Sargent's and Cotton's "Life of Henry Clay," and Greeley's "American Conflict."]



Bunker Hill Monument.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON was born in Berkeley, Virginia, February 9, 1773, and on the death of his father became the ward of Robert Morris, the financier of the Revolution. His father, Benjamin Harrison, was a signer of the Declaration of Independence, and afterward was governor of Virginia. The son was graduated from Hampden-Sidney college and at first studied medicine, but, fascinated by a military life, he entered the army soon after, and through his ability and bravery won speedy promotion. The creditable part he took in the War of 1812 has been



John Tyler

related. He was made secretary of the Northwest Territory in 1797, and was its first congressional delegate in 1799. He served as United States Senator from 1825 to 1828, when he was appointed minister to the Republic of Colombia, South America.

President-elect Harrison, though already an old man, in weak health, wore no hat or overcoat while delivering his inaugural. The weather was cold, and he contracted pneumonia, which was neglected. He was almost distracted by the thousands who clamored for office and would not be put aside. He speedily broke down under the strain, dying on the 4th of April, a month after his inauguration. An immense procession followed the body to the congressional burying-ground. The remains were afterward removed to North Bend, Ohio.

President Harrison's Cabinet, though destined to be short-lived, was as follows: Secretary of State, Daniel Webster of Massachusetts; Secretary of the Treasury, Thomas Ewing of Ohio; Secretary of War, John Bell of Tennessee; Secretary of the Navy, George E. Badger, of North Carolina; Postmaster-General, Francis Granger of New York; Attorney-General, John J. Crittenden of Kentucky.

As provided by the Constitution, John Tyler was the first Vice-President to be sworn in as President. He, too, was a native of Virginia, where he was born March 29, 1790. He was governor of his state, and represented it as United States Senator. As President he broke with his party by vetoing the National Bank bill, and all his Cabinet resigned with the exception of Daniel Webster, who remained to complete the treaty with England over our long-disputed northeastern boundary. Webster and Lord Ashburton discussed the question in the friendliest spirit, and, without the least difficulty, established the boundary as it remained in later days.

President Tyler's Cabinet appointments first and last make quite a list. In addition to the Cabinet he inherited from President Harrison, he named in turn for—Secretary of State, Hugh S. Legard of South Carolina, Abel P. Upshur of Virginia, John C. Calhoun of South Carolina; Secretary of the Treasury, Walter Forward of Pennsylvania, John C. Spencer of New York, George M. Bibb of Kentucky; Secretary of War, John C. Spencer of New York, James M. Porter of Pennsylvania, William Wilkins of Pennsylvania; Secretary of the Navy, Abel P. Upshur of Virginia, David Henshaw of Massachusetts, Thomas W. Gilmer of Virginia, John Y. Mason

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Death of
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ident

President
Tyler's
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Bunker
Hill
Monu-
ment

of Virginia; Postmaster-General, Charles A. Wickliffe of Kentucky; Attorney-General, Hugh S. Legard of South Carolina, John Nelson of Missouri.

Lafayette, while visiting the United States, laid the corner-stone of Bunker Hill monument on June 17, 1825, just a half-century after the battle. The monument was completed in 1842, and dedicated June 17, 1843. Daniel Webster delivered the oration, proposing the monument in 1825, and now, eighteen years later, in all the majesty of his matured powers, which made him one of the greatest orators that ever spoke the English tongue, he pronounced an oration whose impressive and thrilling eloquence has hardly been equaled in ancient or modern times. Among his auditors were a number who had fought in the battle, sixty-eight years before. They were feeble and tottering with age, but were honored above all others. Boston swarmed with strangers, yet so overpowering was the brooding spell of Webster's eloquence and the associations of the hour that no instance of the slightest disorder occurred. It is related that the enthralled multitude so crowded against the speaker's platform that it was in danger of being carried away and causing a fatal accident. Webster appealed to the people to stand back. They tried in vain. "It is impossible," they replied. "Impossible!" thundered Webster; "you are on Bunker Hill, WHERE NOTHING IS IMPOSSIBLE!" And the throng surged backward like the recoil of a vast ocean billow.

The Mor-
mons

The Mormon sect had sprung into being before Harrison became President. Joseph Smith, a native of Vermont, declared he had found a number of gold plates near Palmyra, New York, on which was engraved a new gospel for mankind. The new evangel was published under the name of "The Book of Mormon." There were many believers in Smith, and in 1830 he established a church with over a score of members. He claimed to have continual revelations from heaven, and, obeying one of these, he led his followers to Kirtland, Ohio, where they built a church and stayed several years; but their actions so displeased the people of the neighborhood that they were forced to leave, going to Hancock county, Illinois, where they founded the city of Nauvoo, and built another temple. While at Kirtland, they were joined by Brigham Young, who was afterwards president of the Mormon Church for many years. The system of polygamy which they taught, began at Nauvoo, Smith

having received a revelation commending the practice. The Mormons were mobbed, June 27, 1844, during which Smith and his brother were shot. Brigham Young now became the head, and in 1845 he led the Mormons across the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains to the valley of the Great Salt Lake in Utah. There, in 1848, they founded a city and in time built a magnificent temple. The city was and is one of the finest, most picturesque, and attractive to be found anywhere on the continent, or in any other country. There was trouble with the Mormons afterwards, as will be learned in the course of our record.

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A treaty was made between the United States and Great Britain, in 1842, by which each country agreed to arrest and send back criminals fleeing from the other country. Similar extradition treaties were afterwards made with most of the other nations, so that it was hard for a criminal to find any corner of the world where he could defy, or be safe from, the officers of the law.

In 1844, the Indians surrendered their claim to the country adjoining Lake Superior, and it was settled by white men. Soon after the discovery was made that the section is wonderfully rich in copper ore. Companies were formed, and the development of the mines (which had been worked centuries before by the mound-builders) added a most valuable industry to the commerce of the country. The amazing mineral resources of the United States were unsuspected up to this time, though there had already been some developments in different parts of the country. Gold was mined in Virginia, North Carolina, and Georgia, but the total product could not be compared with that of California a few years afterwards. Illinois and Iowa had their lead mines; Pennsylvania and northern New Jersey their iron deposits; and the prodigious beds of anthracite coal in Pennsylvania were coming into economic use, but the mineral resources of Missouri and Tennessee were hardly known. No one dreamed of the ocean of petroleum underlying portions of Pennsylvania and other states, nor of the silver and gold in the regions on either slope of the Rocky Mountains.

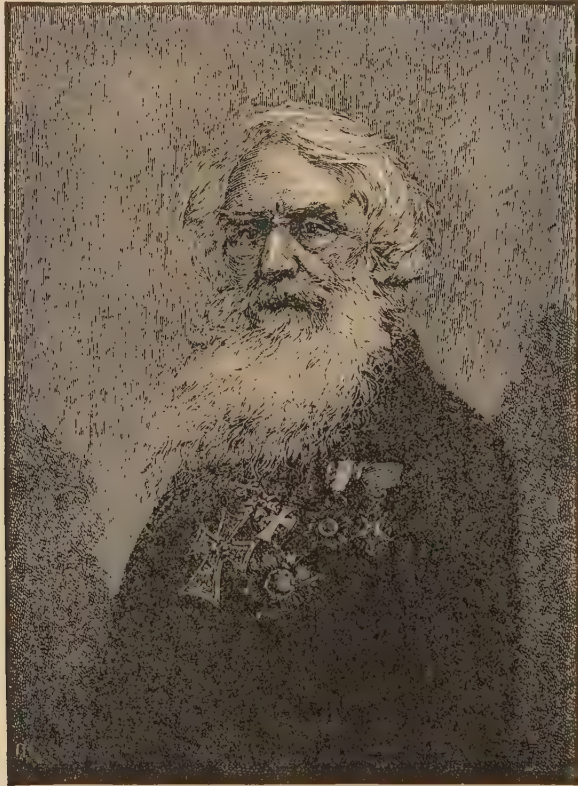
The
Copper
Mines of
Lake
Superior

Recalling the conditions under which New York was settled by the Dutch, the dislike of the "patroon system" will be understood. The patroons, or Dutch proprietors, took up immense tracts of land, numbering thousands of acres, over which they exercised privileges similar to those held by the ancient feudal lords in England. These

The
Patroon
System

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privileges descended from father to son, and were not affected by the War of Independence. The estates of the Van Rensselaer family included nearly all of Albany and Rensselaer counties. Two of the family fought on the side of Great Britain in the War of 1812. The estate was divided into many farms, and the tenant of each was required annually to pay to the landlord, or patroon, from ten to



PROFESSOR S. F. B. MORSE

twenty-two and a half bushels of wheat, four plump fowls, and a day's service with wagon and horses. If a tenant sold his lease, he had to pay the landlord one-quarter of the price received, who had also an interest in the water-power and the absolute ownership of all mines.

Stephen Van Rensselaer died in 1840. He had been so indulgent with his tenants that no outbreak occurred during his life, but at his death there were \$200,000 back rents due his estate. His heirs

determined that this should be collected, and then began an "anti-rent war." The tenants refused payment; fierce collisions took place; the military were called out, but the rents were not paid. The disturbances continued from year to year, until, in the summer of 1844, a diminutive civil war raged in the eastern towns of Rensselaer county and the Livingston manor in Columbia county. Armed men disguised themselves as Indians and terrorized the people. Obnoxious agents were tarred and feathered, and a sheriff was killed in Delaware county while in the discharge of his duty. In 1846, Governor Silas Wright proclaimed the county of Delaware in a state of insurrection, sent the military to the scene of disturbances, and arrested the ringleaders. The murderers of the sheriff were sentenced to death, but the sentence was afterwards commuted to imprisonment for life. These vigorous steps were followed by conciliatory measures. The patroon lands were gradually sold to the tenants, and the immense estates ceased to exist.

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The
Anti-
Rent
War

Benjamin Franklin, the philosopher and patriot, was the first man to bring down lightning from the clouds by means of a kite, and to prove that the electric fluid thus obtained is the same as that which is produced by the friction of certain substances: in other words, that lightning and electricity are one. S. F. B. Morse of Massachusetts, where he was born in 1791, experimented for many years with a view of sending messages by electricity. He succeeded so far that, in 1832, he asked Congress to give him enough money to put up a line between Baltimore and Washington. No one believed in the invention, and his request was refused. He, however, kept at work, suffering at times great privations, until Congress finally granted him \$30,000 with which to build a line forty miles long from Baltimore to Washington. When the line was completed, in 1844, Miss Annie Elsworth, the daughter of one of Morse's staunch friends, sent, on May 24, from Washington to Baltimore, the first message: "What hath God wrought!" This telegram is still preserved among the treasures of the Connecticut Historical Society.

Inven-
tion of
the Mag-
netic
Tele-
graph

The Democratic convention which assembled in Baltimore in May, 1844, nominated James K. Polk for the presidency. As soon as the nomination took place many of those present boarded the train to take the news to Washington. When they arrived there, to their amazement they found that the news had been received an hour ahead of them. This was the first public dispatch that ever passed

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Electrical
Inven-
tions

over a wire, the date being the 29th of May, 1844. It marked an era in civilization. If the telegraph lines in the United States in 1900 were joined together in a single line, they would girdle the earth more than thirty times.

Like all great inventions, that of the electro-magnetic telegraph was, and is, fully understood by only a few. To Professor Morse belongs the chief credit, but there were men associated with him whose claims should not be forgotten. The late Franklin Leonard Pope, one of the ablest and most impartial of electricians, sums up an exhaustive inquiry into the subject, published in *The Century Magazine*, in the following words: "1. The first electro-magnetic apparatus for producing at will audible sounds at a distance was invented, constructed, and operated by Joseph Henry, in Albany, N. Y., in 1831. 2. The first electro-magnetic telegraph for producing at will permanent written marks at a distance was invented by Professor S. F. B. Morse in 1832, and constructed and operated by him in New York prior to September 2, 1837. 3. The first code of numerical conventional signs capable of being intelligibly written or sounded by the armature of an electro-magnet, was originated by Morse in 1832. 4. The first code of alphabetical conventional signs capable of being intelligibly written or sounded by the armature of an electro-magnet, was originated by Alfred Vail in 1837-38. 5. The relay and combined circuits was invented by Morse prior to September 4, 1837. 6. The lever-key in its modern form was invented by Vail in 1844. 7. The dry-point recording register was invented by Vail in 1843. 8. The inverted cup of glass for insulating the line wire was invented by Ezra Cornell in 1844-45."

Trouble
Brewing
in
Texas

The immense State of Texas was originally a part of Mexico. The claim of the United States that it belonged to Louisiana was given up in 1819. American settlers went thither, and in 1833 there were twenty thousand inhabitants in the province. A scheme was now formed for wresting Texas from Mexico. Among the leaders were Sam Houston, who had been a member of Congress, governor of Tennessee, and a chief among the Indians; David Crockett, once Congressman from Tennessee; the brothers James and Rezin Bowie, Colonel Travis, Albert Sidney Johnston, besides a number of desperate men who had fled from home to escape punishment for their crimes.

Mexico strove to suppress the revolt which broke out, but was



FALL OF THE ALAMO

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The
Revolt of
Texas
Against
Mexico

unable to do so. On the 2d of March, 1833, Texas declared herself independent. Santa Anna, President of the Mexican republic, invaded the territory, and, with an overwhelming force laid siege to the Alamo, an adobe structure preserved as a cherished relic in San Antonio. In this ancient mission-building were gathered one hundred and eighty-two Texans, who fought until only a dozen were left. These were so much exhausted, that under a pledge of honorable treatment they surrendered. Then, by order of Santa Anna, every one was put to death. Thermopylae for ages has served as the scene of the loftiest type of heroism, but not all of the Spartan band were slain. What more expressive tribute was ever engraved than that upon the cenotaph erected at Austin, the capital of Texas, in memory of the defenders of the Alamo: "*Thermopylae had its messenger of defeat, but the Alamo had none.*"

In April Santa Anna took up the pursuit of Houston, who retreated with his small force to San Jacinto, where its members turned upon the Mexicans with such fury that Santa Anna's army was almost annihilated and its leader taken prisoner. Santa Anna was so terrified in consequence of his cruelty at the Alamo, that he eagerly signed a treaty acknowledging the independence of Texas. Mexico, however, repudiated the treaty, and a guerilla warfare followed, without any organized effort being made by Mexico to re-conquer the province. Texas, with the lone star as its flag, became an independent republic. Sam * Houston was its first President and served also for a second term. Texas asked to be admitted to the United States during Van Buren's administration, but the President opposed the admission, for he knew that it would provoke a war with Mexico. The question was debated in Congress in 1843-44. The North opposed the incorporation of the region because it would add a vast area of slave territory, while the South favored the admission for the same reason.

Thus matters stood, when, in 1844, John C. Calhoun became Secretary of State. He and President Tyler favored the admission of Texas. Henry Clay opposed it and thus ended his political career, for he alienated the South by his attitude on the question, and, though popular in the North, there was a considerable element opposed to him. The Democratic candidates in 1844 were James K. Polk and George M. Dallas, and the Whig candidates Henry Clay and Theo-

Presi-
dential
Election
of 1844

*This eccentric man would never allow himself to be called "Samuel."

dore Frelinghuysen, with James G. Birney, the "Liberty" or Abolition candidate. Polk received 170 electoral votes to 105 cast for Clay, Birney carrying no state and receiving no electoral vote. A joint resolution annexing Texas was then introduced into Congress. A warm discussion followed, but the resolution passed the House, with the proviso that the new President might act by treaty if he thought best. The Senate concurred March 1. The President signed the bill, and Secretary Calhoun immediately hurried a messenger to Texas to bring in the state under joint resolution. The President made a treaty of annexation with Texas, but the Senate refused to ratify it, and its annexation was not effected until December 29, 1845.

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Admission of
Texas

It already has been related how the territory of Texas was explored by De Leon and La Salle. The early population consisted mainly of roving bands of Indians with a few scattered mission stations of the Catholics. Moses Austin, of Connecticut, secured a large grant of land from the Spanish authorities in 1820, after which emigration from the United States began and rapidly increased, under the new impulse and encouragement given to it.

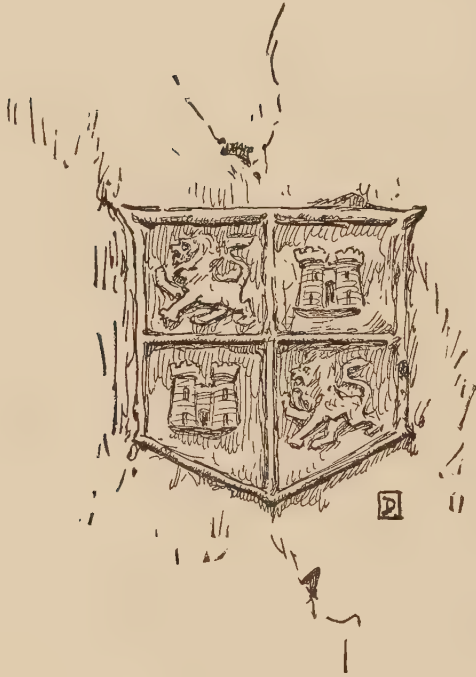
A few facts will help to give the reader an idea of the enormous size of this state. It extended across eleven degrees of latitude, and had an area of 265,780 square miles, with a population at the time of annexation, of two and a quarter millions. Its area was more than five times that of New York state, and more than twice that of the whole of England, Scotland, Ireland and Wales. The extreme western point of the state was two hundred miles nearer to the Pacific than to the Gulf of Mexico, and a part of the Pan Handle Railway was nearer to the Great Salt Lake of Utah than to the Gulf. It had two hundred and twenty-eight counties, of which fourteen were larger than the state of Delaware. The distance across the state from east to west was as great as that from New York to Chicago. From the northwest corner of the Pan Handle to the southern boundary at Brownsville was as far as from Chicago to Mobile. The extreme northern point was in about the same latitude as Norfolk, Virginia, and yet the most southern point was hardly a hundred miles north of Key West. Although only California and Florida exceed it in length of seacoast, yet Texas had large regions that were farther from the sea than Idaho, Nevada, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Ohio.

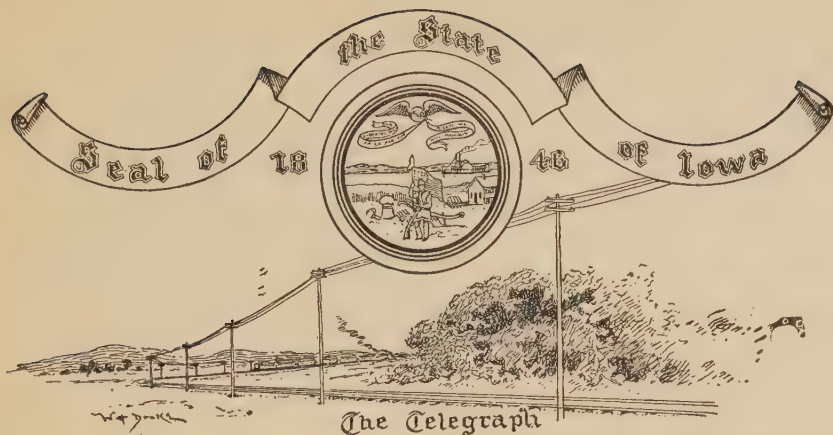
Immense
Area of
Texas

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Meanwhile, Florida was admitted March 3, 1845, the day before the close of President Tyler's term. The early history of this state will be remembered. Several derivations of its name are given, one of which is the Spanish word "florida," meaning "blooming," an appropriate name when applied to this semi-tropical region. It contains the oldest settlement in the country, St. Augustine, founded by the Spanish in 1565.





CHAPTER XVI

POLK'S ADMINISTRATION—1845-1849

[*Author's Note:* It is interesting to the student of history to note how many men have attained to eminence in political affairs from the fact of their eminence in military achievement. In our own country we have Washington, Jackson, Harrison, Taylor, and Grant actually attaining to the presidency, and Scott, Hancock, and McClellan almost reaching it for no other reason than that they were successful as military commanders. The human animal is essentially a fighting animal, and its best applause will go not to the men who make our epochs in science, art, literature, and economics, but to our military chieftains who are triumphant in our physical contests. The world's champion prize-fighter will attract admiring crowds, when our Hoes and Morses and Howes and Edisons are neglected. It is only the late verdict of history that finally puts matters right, and assigns to the Tyndalls and Spencers and Darwins a higher place than is reached by our Wellingtons and Napoleons. The Mexican war furnished us with a Taylor, with his "A little more grape, Captain Bragg," and doubtless many other instances of the same kind will occur to the reader. Special references for this chapter are Powell's "Life of General Taylor," *North American Review* for January, 1851, and "New American Encyclopaedia."]



JAMES K. POLK was born in Mecklenburg, North Carolina, November 2, 1795. His father removed to Tennessee when the son was quite young. The boy, growing up, studied law, became a local politician of note, and was elected to Congress in 1825. He served there for fourteen years, when he was chosen governor of Tennessee, from which office he passed to that of President of the United States. President Polk, more fortunate than his predecessor, found the financial condition of the country much improved on his assumption of office. He chose a strong Cabinet, composed as follows:



The Smithsonian Institute
Washington D. C.



James H. Falk

Secretary of State, James Buchanan of Pennsylvania; Secretary of the Treasury, Robert J. Walker of Mississippi; Secretary of War, William M. Marcy of New York; Secretary of the Navy, George Bancroft of Massachusetts, John Y. Mason of Virginia; Postmaster-General, Cave Johnson of Tennessee; Attorney-General, John Y. Mason of Virginia, Nathan Clifford of Maine, Isaac Toucey of Connecticut.

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Iowa was admitted to the Union, December 28, 1846. The name of this state is believed to be of Indian origin, meaning "sleepy or drowsy ones." The French built a fort on the present site of Dubuque (*du-book'*) in 1810, but no real settlement took place until 1833, when a number of emigrants from Illinois made their homes at Burlington, and a few months later Dubuque was founded. The territory was a part of the Louisiana tract, and was not organized into a separate territory until 1838. When admitted to the Union, Iowa was reduced to its present limits.

Admission of
Iowa

As the year passed, many measures of internal amelioration and development were promoted. The telegraph invention had become fully recognized, and wires were put up in all the settled parts of the country. Another important invention was the sewing-machine. There had been numerous experiments in the direction of this useful domestic auxiliary, many of them fairly successful, before Elias Howe took out a patent in 1846. He had spent a long time at his experiments, and, like Morse, had reduced himself to the lowest depth of poverty before he attained success, and with it an enormous fortune. The sewing-machine has been greatly improved since then, until it has become almost as much a part of every household as are the chairs and dining-room table. The cylinder printing press was patented by R. M. Hoe, in 1847. Great improvements have also been made in that. The work done by these machines is almost marvelous.

Useful
Inventions

The United States Military Academy was established at West Point at the beginning of the century, an act having been passed by Congress for that purpose, March 16, 1802. The first superintendent was named in 1815, and the later system of cadet appointment was adopted in 1843. A counterpart of this admirable institution was formed when the Naval Academy at Annapolis was opened, October 10, 1845. Its origin was due mainly to Mr. Bancroft, Secretary of the Navy. The Smithsonian Institution was

The
U. S.
Military
Academy

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The
Smithso-
nian In-
stitution

organized by act of Congress in April, 1846. James Smithson, a famous English chemist and philanthropist, died in Genoa, in 1824, leaving a large amount of money to the United States government. The sum, amounting to more than half a million dollars, was deposited in the mint in 1838. By the provisions of the bequest, the fund was to be appropriated for the establishment in Washington of an institution for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men. John Quincy Adams prepared a plan of organization, which was adopted by Congress. The institution was named in honor of its founder, and was placed under the immediate control of a board of regents, consisting of the President, Vice-President, the Judges of the Supreme Court, and other leading officers of the government. One important provision was that the entire Smithsonian fund, amounting with interest to \$625,000, should be loaned forever to the United States at six per cent; that out of the proceeds, together with Congressional appropriations and private gifts, buildings should be erected suitable for a museum of natural history, a cabinet of minerals, a chemical laboratory, a gallery of art, and a library. Professor Joseph Henry, of Princeton college, was chosen secretary, and the plan of organization was soon put into operation. The "Smithsonian" has proved to be one of the most useful institutions of its kind in the world.

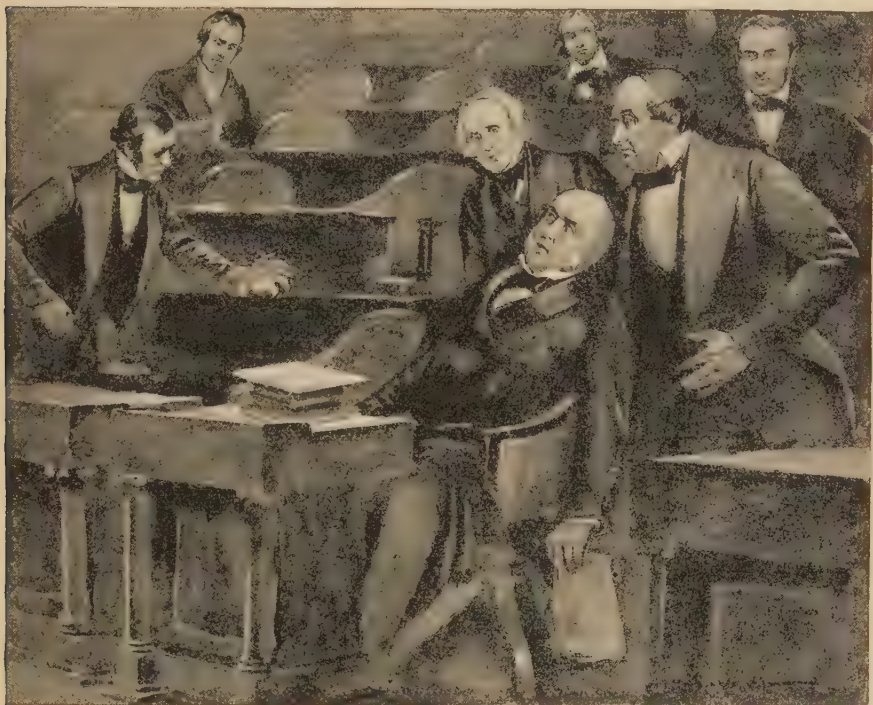
Death of
Ex-
Presi-
dent
Jackson

Two ex-Presidents died during Polk's term of office. Andrew Jackson, bending under the weight of years, was living quietly at the "Hermitage" in Tennessee. The man of fierce passion and uncontrollable temper became softened as he saw the approach of the great change which awaits all. Consumption weakened the form that had defied wounds, tempest, exposure, and hardships. He had always felt a profound respect for the Christian belief, and he now fully accepted its requirements. He became a humble, thoughtful, and devout man. Almost his last act was to dictate a letter to President Polk, urging him to act promptly in the affairs of Texas and Oregon. He bade farewell to his family and servants, calmly and earnestly commending religion to them all. "I hope to meet each of you in heaven," he said. "Be good children, all of you, and strive to be ready when the change comes." He passed peacefully away, early in the evening of June 8, 1845. His funeral was attended by fully three thousand mourners. His remains were placed at rest at the

"Hermitage," eleven miles from Nashville, and the grave is marked by a massive monument of Tennessee granite.

The death of John Quincy Adams was impressive. He had long served as one of the most active members of Congress. Despite his great age, he entered that body on the 21st of February, 1848, bright and in good spirits, and took his seat. Suddenly there was a cry

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THE DEATH OF JOHN QUINCY ADAMS

"*Mr. Adams!*" and several members rushed toward him. He was in the act of rising, when he was stricken with apoplexy. He grasped his desk, reeled, and would have fallen to the floor, had not a fellow-member caught him in his arms. He whispered a request for restoratives, which were administered, and he was carried into the Speaker's room. As he was laid upon a sofa, he feebly muttered, "This is the last of earth; I am content." He lingered until the morning of the 23d, when he died. The day of his funeral, the body was drawn by six white horses on the same car that had served at the funeral of President Harrison, and was buried under the Unita-

Death of
Ex-
Presi-
dent J. Q.
Adams

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The Sub-
Treasury
System

rian church at Quincy, Massachusetts, beside the remains of his illustrious father, the second President.

The Department of the Interior was organized as one of the departments of the government while Polk was President. The wealth of the country had greatly increased, and the public business had become so large that the addition was necessary. The Sub-Treasury System was re-established in 1846, and has been in operation ever since.

Settle-
ment of
the
Oregon
Bound-
ary

The Oregon matter, which Jackson referred to in his letter to the President, was the boundary dispute with Great Britain. For more than twenty years (from 1818) the two nations had jointly occupied Oregon, the agreement being that such occupation could be ended by either on a year's notice. There was much discussion over the question during the session of Congress in 1845-46. Our claim was that the boundary line should be 54° 40' north latitude. England would not consent to this, and the popular cry in the United States was "Fifty-four forty, or fight." There were mutterings of war on both sides, but calmer counsels prevailed, and in 1846 it was agreed that the boundary line should continue along the forty-ninth parallel to the middle of the channel which separates the continent from Vancouver Island, thence southerly through the same channel and Fuca Strait to the Pacific; and that the navigation of the channel and straits should be free to both nations, while the navigation of the large northern branch of the Columbia should remain open to British subjects. Oregon was organized into a territory in 1848, and in 1853 it was divided (it became a state in 1859), the northern part becoming Washington Territory, later Washington State.

The so-called "American System" came to an end in 1846. The new tariff act then passed gave no heed to the protection of manufactures, its purpose being simply to provide the necessary revenue for the government. This revenue tariff system remained in force until the breaking out of the civil war in 1861, when protection was again given to the manufacturers.

Having thus named most of the leading civil events of Polk's administration, attention will now be given to those of a more militant nature.

Practically everyone felt that the admission of Texas to the Union would cause a war between the United States and Mexico.

Although the "Lone Star" republic had gained its independence, which was recognized not only by the United States but by several European countries, Mexico, it was known, would never willingly consent to see it pass into the possession of the United States. Mexico had committed many wrongs against American citizens and commerce, but she was so distracted at home, that our government generously forbore to call her to account. Mexico believed that this forbearance was due to fear. We claimed six million dollars for damages done to property of our citizens; Mexico admitted that one-third of that amount was a just claim, but, after repeated promises to pay, she finally refused to do anything at all towards settlement. She offered to recognize the independence of Texas, provided it would not join the American Union, but Texas replied by entering the United States as soon as she could.*

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President Polk was hardly inaugurated, when General Almonte (*al-mon'-tā*), the Mexican minister, asked for his passports and went home, thus severing diplomatic relations between the two countries. In the following June, President Herrera (*her-rā'ra*) of Mexico issued a proclamation declaring that the annexation of Texas by the United States could not affect the rights of Mexico, which would be maintained by force of arms. The Texan authorities asked President Polk to take steps to help them in their defense against their powerful neighbor, who might have refrained from such attempt but for the dispute over the boundary between the two countries. Mexico claimed that the boundary line between the two contiguous regions was the Nueces river, and Texas insisted that it was the Rio Grande. Between these two streams lay a strip of land claimed by both.

The Dis-
puted
Bound-
ary Line

*The power of one vote was never shown more strikingly than in Indiana in 1844. A sick man in Switzerland county was carried two miles in a carriage to vote for David Kelso, who was running for the state senate. The sick man was a client whose life had been saved by Kelso. The act of gratitude caused the client's death, but elected Kelso, who received one more vote than his opponent. The state senate had to elect a United States Senator. Kelso bolted the Democratic caucus and took with him a friend. This tied the votes for weeks. Then Kelso selected Edward A. Hannigan as a new candidate, and declared that he would vote with the Whigs unless he was supported. This threat brought about the election of Hannigan, who took his seat in the United States Senate. Then came the wrangle over the admission of Texas to the Union. The most prominent Democratic candidate for the senate in Indiana before Hannigan entered the field had pledged himself to vote against the measure. The bill for the admission of the state passed by a single vote and that vote was cast by Hannigan. Thus it may be said that the vote of a dying man in the wooded hills of Switzerland county, Indiana, made Texas a state and brought on the war with Mexico.

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When we read the story of André's attempt to bring about the betrayal of West Point to the British, many regard the act as infamous. But the course of André did not violate any law of civilized nations in prosecuting war: the infamy rested solely with Arnold, who committed treason against his native land. Just before the war began with Mexico, our government tried to secure a betrayal of that



GENERAL ANTONIO LOPEZ DE SANTA ANNA

Santa
Anna's
Treach-
ery

country by one of its most prominent men. General Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna had been ruler, president, dictator, and successful general, but he was a man without a spark of honor and engaged to the close of his life in plotting against the interests of Mexico. His ambition was insatiable, and he was trusted and distrusted for more than forty years. He was banished several times, and, at his death, when past threescore and ten, and while he was an exile, he was planning another revolutionary movement.

In 1845, Santa Anna was serving a sentence of ten years' banishment in Cuba. President Polk offered him a large sum of money from the secret-service fund to assist our army in conquering Mexico. Santa Anna promptly accepted the offer. The plan required Santa Anna to return to his own country, while the President was to send a strong force to the Mexican frontier. The Mexican army, it was thought certain, would declare its support of Santa Anna, for he had many friends among the soldiers. By and by, such was the expectation, he would find himself in so great a peril, that he would be obliged to surrender his forces, and it was believed that a decisive blow, at the beginning of the war, would cause Mexico to hasten to make peace. This plan most likely would have succeeded but for the indiscretion of the agent (A. Slidell McKenzie, of the United States navy) who instead of going secretly to Santa Anna, in Cuba, so as not to excite suspicion, arrived in Havana in full uniform and without any attempt at concealment rode out to Santa Anna's home near the city. This was fatal to the scheme, for Santa Anna's treason would have been so plain that he would have been shot; and, unscrupulous as he was, he valued his life above everything.

General Taylor, in command of the American army, had landed with his troops on the island of St. Joseph, whence he sailed to Corpus Christi, a small village on the mainland of Texas, near the mouth of the Nueces. In September, 1845, he formed a camp and remained until the following spring. President Polk asked President Herrera whether he would receive a minister of the United States. Herrera, anxious for peace, answered in the affirmative; but his people were clamoring for war, so they turned him out of office and elected General Paredes (*pă-ră-dās*) in his place. War was under way when our minister reached the City of Mexico, and Paredes then refused to receive him. The Mexicans were confident of speedily driving the "northern barbarians" from the soil of their country. General Taylor, having been reinforced, was ordered, early in 1846, to take position on the left bank of the Rio Grande, opposite the Mexican city of Matamoras, where the Mexican troops were gathering with the purpose of invading Texas. Taylor entered the disputed territory, landing at Point Isabel, about thirty miles from Matamoras, where, unheeding of the warnings of the Mexicans, he formed his camp. Leaving a portion of his force behind, he marched with the remainder to a point on the Rio Grande, opposite Matamoras, where

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A
Plot
That
Failed

General
Taylor
Near the
Rio
Grande

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he built Fort Brown, so named in honor of Major Brown, who was left in command. President Paredes sent General Ampudia thither with a strong force to drive Taylor beyond the Nueces. Ampudia arrived April 12, 1846, and sent a note to General Taylor demanding his withdrawal within twenty-four hours, saying that if he did not do so an appeal would be made to arms. Since Taylor was there by



DEFEAT OF THE AMERICAN DRAGOONS

order of his government, and upon what was claimed to be United States soil, he refused to leave. Ampudia hesitated, and because of this he was superseded by General Arista (*a-rees'tă*), chief of the northern division of the army of Mexico.

An Act
of War

Taylor now learned that two vessels, with supplies for the Mexicans, were about to enter the Rio Grande, and he consequently ordered the river to be blockaded by a brig and a revenue-cutter. Regarding this as an act of war, Arista prepared to attack Fort Brown. He had sent parties of Mexicans across the river, who closed communication between General Taylor and his depot of supplies at Point Isabel. Reinforcements were reaching Arista every hour, and

some of them were trying to cross the river above the American encampment. Taylor's position was becoming perilous, for his force was much inferior, and he sent out Captain Thornton with a company of dragoons to reconnoiter. Thornton was attacked by a large force of Mexicans, and, after a loss of sixteen men killed and wounded, his command was captured. Thus the first blood shed in the Mexican war was north of the Rio Grande. Thornton escaped by a tremendous leap of his horse over a thick hedge amid a storm of bullets. This fight took place April 24, 1846.

General Taylor speedily saw the danger to his depot of supplies. So having nearly completed the fort, he left Major Brown in command of the garrison of three hundred men, and made a forced march to Point Isabel, May 1, reaching the post on the same day without opposition. The Mexicans accepted this withdrawal as another evidence of the cowardice of the Americans, and were exultant. Arista sent a force across the river to gain the rear of Fort Brown. This was done, a battery was erected, and, on the morning of May 5, a noisy bombardment was opened on the fort. The batteries at Matamoros joined, and Major Brown was among the first killed, though little effect was produced on the fortifications. Arista's summons to surrender was refused, and the bombardment was renewed. General Taylor had expected this attack, and had ordered Major Brown to fire signal guns if he needed help. Accordingly, heavy guns were fired at intervals on the evening of May 6, which were heard at Point Isabel, and General Taylor set out for the relief of the garrison. He had meanwhile been reinforced by Texan volunteers and marines from the fleet, and was at the head of more than two thousand men. Fully six thousand Mexicans had, however, crossed the Rio Grande, under General Arista, and held a strong position at Palo Alto (*päh'lo ähl'toe*). The American army instantly assailed this superior force, and fought it with such desperate bravery that at the close of the day (May 8) the Mexicans were routed. They had suffered a loss of six hundred in killed and wounded, the loss of the Americans being fifty-three, of whom only five or six were killed. Among the latter was the gallant Major Ringgold, of the artillery.

The Americans were exhausted by their five hours' hard fighting and the hot weather; nevertheless, long before daylight, they were roused from slumber to resume their march to Fort Brown, which still held out. Towards evening, when within three miles of the fort,

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The
First
Collision

Battle of
Palo
Alto



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BATTLE OF RESACA DE LA PALMA

the Mexicans were discovered strongly posted in the wide ravine of Resaca de la Palma (*rā-sāh'käh dā-läh pähl'mah*). The ravine was not deep, but it was nearly a hundred yards wide, and was bordered with palmetto trees. Within this depression, the Mexicans had planted a battery commanding the road over which the Americans were marching. Taylor advanced cautiously and a part of the army became engaged. Then Captain May, leader of the dragoons, was ordered to charge the battery. With his long hair streaming in the wind, caused by the headlong rush of his horse, May leaped his steed over the parapet, and, followed by those of his men whose horses were able to do a like feat, he was among the gunners the next moment sabering them right and left. General LaVega (*läh vä'gäh*) was in the act of applying a match to one of the cannon, when he and a hundred of his men were made prisoners and borne back to the American lines. This, however, was only an incident of the battle, which grew fiercer every minute. From the adjoining thicket and trees, a hot fire was kept up by the Mexicans, but the Americans fought with their usual bravery, and again the enemy was routed. The camp and headquarters of General Arista were captured, and he fled alone across the Rio Grande, leaving his private property behind. The Mexican army numbered fully seven thousand men, of whom a thousand were lost, while of the two thousand Americans, a little more than a hundred were killed or wounded. The victory was a brilliant one.

General Taylor now returned to Point Isabel to consult with Commodore Connor, after which he made his way to Fort Brown to prepare for offensive operations. Arista sent a request to him for an armistice until the respective governments could consult and settle the dispute. Taylor refused this, however, for he knew that the treacherous Mexican was only seeking time in which to rally his troops and obtain reinforcements. That such was the fact was proved by his course during this preliminary conference, for he removed a large quantity of ammunition and stores and retreated with his troops to the open country towards Monterey (*mön-tā-ray'*). Learning this, Taylor crossed the river, May 18, and for the first time the Stars and Stripes were unfurled over undisputed Mexican territory.

The news of Thornton's defeat and General Taylor's peril roused the war spirit of the Union. The President notified Congress that the

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Battle of
Resaca
de la
Palma

A Bril-
liant
Victory

General
Taylor's
Good
Judgment

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blood of American citizens had been shed on our own soil by Mexican troops, and Congress replied, May 11, that war already existed by the acts of the Mexican government. Ten million dollars were placed at the disposal of the President, who was authorized to call for fifty thousand volunteers. The call was followed by an offer of three hundred thousand men. On the 23d of the same month, Mexico



FIGHTING IN THE STREETS

War
Declared
by
Mexico

made a formal declaration of war against the United States. Now that war was fairly launched, William L. Marcy, Secretary of War, and General Winfield Scott, general-in-chief of the armies of the United States, together formed a plan for the invasion and conquest of Mexico.

The Army of the West, under General Stephen M. Kearny, was to rendezvous at Fort Leavenworth, on the Missouri, cross the Rocky

Mountains, and invade New Mexico, to co-operate with the fleet that was to be sent around Cape Horn to attack the Mexican provinces on the Pacific coast; the Army of the Center, under General Scott, was to march northward from the Gulf to the City of Mexico (this being a change from the plan originally intended, to advance from San Antonio, Texas), while General Taylor, with the Army of Occupation, was to seize and hold the districts on the Rio Grande. General Wool's duty was to muster in and forward troops. The latter sent nine thousand men to Taylor, during the summer, from his camp at San Antonio.

The news of the victories caused much rejoicing in the North, and the war fever was high. Although there was opposition at first to the war, it was now popular, and ten times the number of volunteers needed could have been had for the asking. "Rough and Ready," as Taylor was generally called, waited at Matamoras until September for reinforcements and orders from the government. On the 19th of September, having been joined by General Worth, he encamped within three miles of Monterey, a strongly fortified town, defended by General Ampudia with nine thousand men, the force of the Americans being two thousand less. On the 21st, Worth attacked the town, the assault becoming general on the 23d. The fighting in the streets was furious. From the adobe houses, whose walls were strong enough to resist the heaviest cannon, the Mexicans poured an incessant fire of musketry. The Americans battered down the doors, dashed through the buildings, chased the men over the flat roofs, and shot or captured them. Ampudia at this juncture asked for a truce, but Taylor refused, and the surrender took place on the 24th of the month.

By this time, Santa Anna was again in Mexico and at the head of the army. He expressed a desire for peace, and Taylor agreed to a cessation of hostilities for eight weeks, provided that his government would give its consent. After sending nine thousand troops to Taylor, General Wool at San Antonio had three thousand left. These were carefully trained with the intention of invading the rich province of Chihuahua (*che-waw'-waw'*). Ascending the Rio Grande, Wool reached Monclova, seventy miles northwest of Monterey, on October 31. He treated the frightened inhabitants so well that they looked upon him as a friend rather than an enemy. Wool now acted upon the advice of General Taylor, gave up the plan of invad-

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The
Plan of
Cam-
paign

General
Wool's
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Taylor's
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ments

ing Chihuahua, and marched instead to the district of Parras, where he secured plenty of supplies for both armies.

In his report of the capture of Monterey, General Taylor asked for reinforcements, and advised the landing of twenty-five thousand troops at Vera Cruz (*vā'rāh krooz*). By instructions from the Secretary of War, he notified the Mexican authorities that the truce would terminate on the 13th of November. The day before, General Worth marched with nine hundred men for Saltillo, followed the next day by General Taylor, who left General Butler in command at Monterey. Saltillo was occupied on the 15th, and, a month later, Taylor marched towards Victoria, the capital of Tamaulipas (*tah-mou-lē'pahs*), with the intention of attacking Tampico (*tam-pee'ko*) on the coast. That place, however, had been captured by Commodore Connor, while Commodore Perry had occupied Tobasco and Tuspan. Rumors reached Taylor that Santa Anna was collecting a large army at San Luis Potosi (*po-to'see*) to attack Worth at Saltillo, whereupon Taylor marched to Monterey to reinforce that officer, should it become necessary. There he learned that General Wool was at Saltillo with his division. Taylor now marched for Victoria, which he occupied December 29.

General Winfield Scott arrived off Vera Cruz in January, and assumed command of all the American forces in Mexico. He had come to carry out the suggestion of General Taylor, that Vera Cruz should be captured and made the point from which a strong force should penetrate into Mexico. To do this effectively, Scott took most of Taylor's best officers and troops, leaving him with only about five thousand men, of whom not more than one-tenth were regulars. This reduction of his effective strength was a severe trial to Taylor, who was preparing to make a vigorous campaign, but he submitted without protest.

Santa
Anna's
Army

Santa Anna had gathered an army of twenty thousand men, full of enthusiasm, and eager to be led against the "northern barbarians." When Taylor learned that his enemy was approaching, he was exultant, and with his small army he set out to meet him. He left Monterey on the 31st of January, arriving at Saltillo on the 2d of February. Pressing on to Aqua Nueva, twenty miles south of Saltillo, on the San Luis road, he remained nearly three weeks, when he fell back to Augustina, a gorge in the mountains opposite Buena Vista (*bwa'nah vees'tah*). Here with his army of barely five thou-



"I DECLINE ACCORDING TO YOUR REQUEST"—Z. TAYLOR

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sand men, Taylor strengthened his position and calmly awaited the coming of his antagonist.

On the morning of February 22, the armies were almost within sight of each other. A flag of truce entered the American camp, with the following message from the Mexican commander to General Taylor:

A Sum-
mons and
its
Answer

"You are surrounded by twenty thousand men, and cannot, in any human probability, avoid suffering a rout and being cut to pieces with your troops; but, as you deserve consideration and particular esteem, I wish to save you from such a catastrophe, and for that purpose give you notice, in order that you may surrender at discretion, under the assurance that you will be treated with the consideration belonging to the Mexican character; to which end you will be granted an hour's time to make up your mind, to commence from the moment my flag of truce arrives at your camp. With this view, I assure you of my particular consideration. God and liberty!

ANTONIO LOPEZ DE SANTA ANNA."

The messenger did not have to wait an hour to take back the following from "Rough and Ready":

"Sir—In reply to your note of this date, summoning me to surrender my forces at discretion, I beg leave to say that I decline acceding to your request. With high respect, I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR."

Taylor waited for Santa Anna to begin the battle. Well aware of the desperate resistance he was certain to meet, the Mexican leader was cautious. There was some skirmishing through the afternoon and night. Although it was winter, the weather was soft and balmy, and the music of the Mexican bands, mellowed by the intervening distance, floated to the Americans who were sleeping upon their arms and formed a strange prelude to the terrible scenes that were to be enacted on the morrow.

Battle of
Buena
Vista

It was hardly light when the battle began and raged furiously throughout the day. An attempt was made to turn the flank of the American right, but it was defeated by the Illinois troops. An assault against the center was then repulsed by Captain Washington's artillery, after which the left flank was assailed furiously. An

Indiana regiment, through a mistaken order, gave way and for a time the American army was in peril, but the Mississippians and Kentuckians threw themselves into the breach, the Indiana and Illinois troops rallied, and the Mexicans were driven back. General Taylor, standing near Captain Bragg's battery, saw just then signs of wavering in the enemy's line. "Give them a little more grape, Captain," he commanded, and Bragg did as he was ordered. At sunset, the Mexicans broke and fled in confusion. The Americans slept on their arms, expecting the battle to be renewed in the morning, but when daylight came it was discovered that the army had disappeared, leaving five hundred dead and dying on the ground. Many were suffering from hunger, thirst, and exhaustion, and General Taylor gave them all the care possible. The Mexicans lost about two thousand men, the American casualties being seven hundred and forty-six. Among the killed was Colonel Henry Clay, a son of the Kentucky statesman. Colonel Jefferson Davis, in command of a Mississippi regiment, displayed great gallantry. The fame won by General Taylor at Buena Vista made him President of the United States within the following two years. It was the last battle in which he ever took part. He had nobly finished the task assigned to him, and soon after returned to the United States.

Meanwhile, General Kearny had left Fort Leavenworth, in the spring of 1847, with orders to conquer New Mexico and California. It was a long and tiresome march, but Santa Fé was captured and garrisoned on the 18th of August, and all of New Mexico submitted. Then Kearny set out for California with four hundred dragoons. On the road he met the famous mountaineer and guide, Kit Carson, who brought the news that California had been conquered by Colonel John C. Fremont, who had been engaged for a number of years in exploring the almost unknown country west of the Rocky Mountains. He knew of the impending war with Mexico, and urged the pioneers to declare their independence. They did so, and, under his leadership, the Mexicans were repeatedly defeated. The town of Monterey on the coast, eighty miles south of San Francisco, had been taken by Commodore Sloat, while Commodore Stockton, commanding the Pacific squadron, captured San Diego shortly afterwards. Learning of this, Fremont supplanted the "Bear" flag of California with that of the United States, and, uniting his scant forces with those of the navy, marched to Los Angeles (*lōs an' jel-ēs*), which surrendered with-

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"A Little more
Grape"

Con-
quest of
New
Mexico
and Cali-
fornia

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out resistance. The whole province was conquered by autumn.

Upon learning the news from Carson, Kearny sent back most of his men, and with a small force pushed on to the coast. He joined Stockton and Fremont in November. The Mexicans attacked the invaders at San Gabriel on the 8th of January, but were defeated. All armed resistance ended, and the authority of the United States was established over the immense country.

Colonel
 Doni-
 phan's
 Exploit

Colonel Doniphan, of Kearny's command, performed more than one brilliant exploit. Having been left in command in New Mexico, he compelled the Navajo Indians to make a treaty of peace in November, 1846, after which, at the head of one thousand Missourians, he set out to join General Wool. At Bracito (*bră-ceet'oh*), he met a Mexican force much larger than his own. The commander sent a black flag to Doniphan, notifying him that he would neither give nor ask for quarter. Immediately after, the Mexicans advanced with yells and fired several volleys. Seeing the Americans lying on the ground, the Mexicans thought that they were all killed, and rushed forward to plunder their bodies. They were mistaken, however, for the invaders had lain down to escape the bullets, hardly any of which touched them. They now leaped to their feet and fired with such deadly effect that more than two hundred of the enemy fell dead and the remainder fled in terror.

Pushing on, Doniphan encountered four thousand Mexicans near the capital of Chihuahua. An impetuous attack (February 28, 1847) dispersed them, and the commander entered the city and raised the Stars and Stripes over the citadel. He remained several weeks there, and then joined Wool at Saltillo in May. Finally, he returned to New Orleans, having made a march of more than five thousand miles. This completed the conquest of northern Mexico and California. There was plotting afterwards against the government in New Mexico, during which Governor Bent and several others were murdered. But Colonel Price defeated the insurgents, and after a time permanent peace was secured.

The
 Final
 Cam-
 paign

It now remains to tell of the third and final campaign against Mexico, under General Scott, the general-in-chief, with the "Army of the Center." On the 9th of March, 1847, about thirteen thousand troops were landed near the city of Vera Cruz. Commodore Connor (soon succeeded by Commodore M. C. Perry) commanded the naval forces. A seemingly impregnable fortress, called the castle of San



BOMBARDMENT OF VEIA CRUZ

PERIOD V	Juan d'Ulloa (<i>sähn-hoo-ähn' dā-ool-yō'ah</i>), guarded the water-front of the city. Vera Cruz and the castle were invested, and a bombardment by land and water was kept up for four days. The Mexicans in the city suffered so dreadfully that overtures were made for a surrender, which took place on the 29th instant. This gave five hundred pieces of artillery to the Americans and opened the way over the National road to the capital of Mexico.
CONSOLIDATION AND EXPANSION 1829 TO 1861	General Worth was left in command at Vera Cruz and the march began toward the interior, General Twiggs leading the advance. This was on the 8th of April, the course being toward Jalapa. Meanwhile, Santa Anna had managed to bring together some twelve thousand men, and had taken a strong position on the heights of Cerro Gordo, a mountain pass at the foot of the eastern slope of the Cordilleras. It seemed impregnable, but it had to be taken, or the campaign would come to naught. The Americans took it on the forenoon of the 18th. It was a terrific struggle, which caused the assailants a loss of four hundred and thirty-one, and the Mexicans three times as many. Santa Anna's carriage was overturned, and he sprang upon a mule and made such desperate efforts to keep pace with his fleeing troops, that he left his wooden leg behind, as he did at San Jacinto, more than ten years before. The victory for the Americans could not have been more decisive. They gained three thousand prisoners, forty-three pieces of artillery, beside thousands of stands of arms, and an enormous amount of munitions of war. General Worth having joined the army now led the march. Jalapa was occupied on the 19th, and on the 22d of April the American flag was unfurled above the strong castle of Perote (<i>pe-rō'-teh</i>) fifty miles beyond. These places could have made an effective resistance, but the Mexicans seemed to be dazed by the furious vigor of the American attacks. The city of Puebla (<i>pwěb'lah</i>), with a population of eighty thousand, offered no opposition and was occupied on the 15th of May.
Santa Anna's Position	
Rout of the Mexicans	
Prostrations from Intense Heat	The worst foe which the invaders had to encounter was the climate. It had become oppressively hot, and the severe marching and fighting prostrated many of the men. Scott decided to give them a much-needed rest, and remained at Puebla until the 7th of August. During this period, he received reinforcements. Then he resumed his advance with ten thousand men, leaving a small garrison at Puebla. Resistance was expected at the passes of the Cordilleras, but none

was offered, and the invaders soon came in sight of the capital. There were so many fortifications in front of the city, that the army swung round to the south, where the intervening distance was lessened by several miles. Had the defenders possessed one-half the courage of the invaders, the City of Mexico could not have been taken by a force double that of the Americans. The only possible route was by causeways which led across marshes and the beds of dried-up lakes. At the end of these causeways were massive gateways, while to the left of the line of march were the strong positions of Contreras, San Antonio, and Molino del Rey (*mō-lee'nō dēl rā*) while nearer the city, and in front, were the formidable defenses of Churubusco (*choo-roo-boo'sko*) and Chapultepec (*chä-pool-te-pek'*). Santa Anna held all these positions with an army twice as numerous as that of the Americans.

The divisions of Generals Pillow and Twiggs were ordered on the 19th of August to storm the position of Contreras. The line of communications between Contreras and Santa Anna's reserves was cut at the close of day, and General Persifer F. Smith led the assault against the enemy's camp the next morning at sunrise. In less than half an hour the six thousand Mexicans were driven headlong out of the fortifications. Shortly after this, General Worth attacked San Antonio and routed the garrison. Almost at the same time, General Pillow assaulted the heights of Churubusco, where an immense force of the enemy had gathered. The Mexicans resisted fiercely, but could not withstand the impetuous attack of the Americans. One of the other heights was stormed by General Twiggs, and Santa Anna, while advancing with reinforcements, was repelled by Generals Shields and Pierce. Five distinct victories had thus been gained, and the Mexican army of thirty thousand had been defeated by a force one-third in number; four thousand Mexicans had been killed or wounded; three thousand made prisoners, and thirty-seven pieces of artillery captured. It would have been easy to press forward and take the city, for the defenders were in a state of demoralization and panic, but Scott was willing again to try to bring about a peace. He had with him Mr. Trist, an agent sent by our government, who had already made a vain effort in that direction. Accordingly, Scott advanced to Tacubaya (*ta'cu-by'yeh*) within three miles of the capital, and on the 21st of the month sent a proposition to Santa Anna for an armistice, looking to negotiations for peace. The

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The De-
fenses of
the Cap-
ital

Five
Victories

Proposals
for
Peace

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proposition was agreed to, and Mr. Trist entered the capital on the 24th. He remained until the 5th of September, when he returned with word that the proposition was not only rejected with scorn, but Santa Anna had violated the armistice by doing all he could to strengthen the defenses of the city. It was useless to treat with so perfidious a leader, so Scott instantly declared the armistice at an end.

Resist-
less
Work

The castle of Chapultepec, the citadel of Molino del Rey, and the powerful gates of the city, defended by thousands of the enemy, still confronted the Americans, who renewed the attack on the 8th instant. General Worth first assailed Molino del Rey, with four thousand troops, but was repulsed with severe loss. Rallying, he attacked it again, and after the hardest fighting, which was continued for an hour, he carried the citadel. Chapultepec next received attention. Batteries which commanded the hill were erected on the night of the 11th of September. They opened the next morning, and continued pounding away until nightfall. The following day the Americans made a resistless charge, driving all before them, and chased the fleeing Mexicans along an aqueduct to the gates of the city.

Santa
Anna's
Despera-
tion

The American army was now within the suburbs of the City of Mexico. That night, Santa Anna released two thousand convicts to shoot the Americans, and with his officers stole out of the gates and fled in the darkness. A deputation came forward next day to beg General Scott to spare the town and treat for its surrender. But Scott was wearied with the double-dealing and refused to consider the overtures. On the morning of the 14th, Generals Quitman and Worth were ordered to advance and raise the American flag over the National Palace. Shortly afterwards, General Scott, with an escort of dragoons, rode into the city and reined up at the Grand Plaza. There he dismounted, removed his hat, and, raising his sword, proclaimed the conquest of Mexico and took possession of the empire. Finding himself safe from pursuit, Santa Anna, in his cowardly fashion, attacked the hospitals at Puebla, where two thousand sick and wounded lay, under the care of Colonel Childs. They bravely resisted for several days, when General Lane arrived and again the Mexicans were routed and dispersed. At last the miserable Santa Anna was a fugitive and fled for safety to the shores of the Gulf.

Provisional authority was assumed by the president of the Mexican Congress, and on the 2d of February, 1848, that body concluded a treaty of peace with the commissioners of the United States at Guadalupe Hidalgo. With some slight amendments, the treaty was ratified by the American Senate, March 10, and by the Mexican Congress at Queretaro (*kā-rā'tah-ro*) on the 30th of May. President Polk proclaimed peace on the 4th of July following.

The treaty required the evacuation of Mexico by the American army within three months, the immediate payment by our government to Mexico of three million dollars, and twelve million more in four annual instalments. Our government in addition assumed the payment of certain debts due from Mexico to American citizens, to the amount of three and one-half million dollars. These payments were in consideration of the large amount of territory secured to us. This included not only Texas, but New Mexico, California, and Arizona, while the boundary lines were fixed substantially as they have remained ever since.

While these negotiations for peace were under way, an incident took place in California whose results were almost beyond estimate. Colonel Sutter, a Swiss, had been commandant for a number of years at Fort Sutter, and began the erection of a sawmill at Coloma, on the American branch of the Sacramento river. In the month of January, 1848, James W. Marshall and a number of men were engaged in digging a race-way for the mill, when they came upon rock which they feared would prevent the making of an even channel for the water. Marshall had given much thought to the discovery of gold, and seemed to suspect its existence in that neighborhood. He spent the afternoon of the 23d looking for it, carrying an ordinary tin pan with him, but came back without success. The next morning, he went out again with the pan. Some of the others were digging, when Marshall came up from the hole where he was working, saying that he had found some sort of mineral. He had a number of flake-like scales in his hat, which he showed to his friends; but no one knew what they were. James Brown took one of the flakes between his teeth and bit it. He believed it was gold, but he was not certain. Some of the flakes were placed in a wood fire in the cabin, but would not melt. Then Brown was sure that they were gold.

Efforts were made to keep the discovery a secret, for it was known that thousands of people would flock thither, if the news got abroad.

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Peace

Gold Discovered
in California

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Spread
of the
News

The mill was completed, the workmen gathering enough gold from the vicinity to pay them well for their work. To remove all doubt, the “finds” were sent to Sacramento and subjected to a scientific test. The result proved beyond all question that the metal was pure gold. The news quickly reached San Francisco, and from there spread throughout the Union, and so to the uttermost parts of the earth.

There have been varying accounts published of the discovery of gold in California. The one here given is on the authority of James Brown, who lived to an advanced age at Pomona Valley in that state. He was with Marshall at Sutter’s mill in January, 1848, and was the last survivor of the party who helped to dig out the mill-race. Marshall was a native of New Jersey. He reaped no benefit from his discovery, and Colonel Sutter was impoverished by the multitudes who overran his place. Brown was a Mormon, who left Sutter’s mill to join his people.

When the statement appeared in the papers of the East that gold had been found in California, it was doubted, but after some of the metal had been received by the mint in Philadelphia and declared to be gold, and the President referred to the fact in his message in the following December, no one could deny the astonishing truth. Gold not only had been found in California, but existed there in vast quantities waiting to be taken from the earth. Then began a stampede westward such as was never before seen. The ships passing around Cape Horn and up the Pacific coast to San Francisco were crowded; a steady procession streamed across the mountains and prairies, caring nothing for snow, rain, hurricane, heat, cold, wild beasts, or the fiercer wild Indians. They came from across the Atlantic, and after a time even distant Asia furnished its quota. Portions of California became great mining camps; the few stragglers, living in the half-dozen miserable cabins in San Francisco, found in the course of a few months that they had twenty thousand neighbors. In two years the population of California increased to a hundred thousand, and still the ships poured out their swarm upon the wharves and the processions streamed over the Sierras.

It is estimated that the amount of gold produced by California from 1849 to 1861 was worth half a billion dollars. The yield has continued to be enormous, but its value is surpassed by the annual wheat crop of the state, besides which, the fruit product, both as to quality and size, exceeds that of any other region.

Unprec-
edented
Excite-
ment

Wisconsin, the thirtieth state, was admitted to the Union, May 29, 1848. Its name comes from its leading river, which means "the gathering of the waters." Wisconsin was one of the first districts of the country to receive the earliest visits of the fur traders and French missionaries, some of whom went thither in 1639. Green Bay was settled in 1745. The region formed a part of the Northwest Territory, but became a separate territory in 1836. In 1846, David Wilmot, Congressman from Pennsylvania, presented a bill which prohibited slavery in all the territory that might be acquired by treaty from Mexico. The bill was known as the Wilmot Proviso. It was warmly debated, as was every question bearing upon the subject of slavery, but was defeated. Its supporters formed a strong faction, and, in June, 1848, they nominated Martin Van Buren for the presidency. General Zachary Taylor was very popular, because of his successes in Mexico, and the Whigs nominated him for President, and Millard Fillmore for Vice-President. The Democratic nominees were respectively Lewis Cass and William O. Butler. Taylor and Cass each carried fifteen states, but Cass received only 127 electoral votes to 163 cast for Taylor. The Free Soil candidates carried no state and received no electoral vote, but they secured just enough support in New York to take the thirty-six electoral votes from the Democrats and give them to the Whigs. But for the intrusion of the Free Soil candidates, the result of the election would have been reversed.

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The
Wilmot
Proviso





Zachary Taylor.



CHAPTER XVII

TAYLOR AND FILLMORE'S ADMINISTRATIONS 1849-1853

[*Author's Note:* There have been few better illustrations of the fact that success in military affairs is speedily followed by civic honors, than the story of Taylor's elevation to the presidency. In the Black Hawk War in 1812 he is colonel; he commands at Okechobee in 1837, when the Seminoles are defeated; he is victorious over the Mexicans at Palo Alto, Resaca de la Palma, and at Buena Vista, and gains from his soldiers the sobriquet of "Rough and Ready." His last fight at Buena Vista was in February, 1847, and he attained the presidency by the election of November, 1848. This will be conceded to be a speedy recognition of military merit, for he had practically no other, having never before filled any civil office. His administration, however, was very popular in the free states. The student is referred to Powell's "Life of General Taylor," and to the *North American Review* of January, 1851.]



T seems strange that with Henry Clay and Daniel Webster each in the fulness of his magnificent mental powers, neither of them should have been nominated for the presidency, while an uneducated man, who was so little interested in politics that he had not cast a vote for forty years, and who, to use Webster's own expression, was "an ignorant frontier colonel," should have been selected for that office. But it is the people who choose the President, and the halo of Buena Vista, Palo Alto, and Resaca de la Palma, circled the brow of "Rough and Ready" and gave him a popularity possessed by no other man, and so he was chosen.

Zachary Taylor was born in Orange county, Virginia, September 24, 1784. His parents removed to Kentucky when he was an in-

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fant. His education was meager, but he was a fine soldier, as he proved not only by his record in the Mexican War but in that of 1812. He was the first officer of the American army to receive a brevet, which was given to him by President Madison, for his gallant defense of Fort Harrison. He was a plain, blunt man, thoroughly honest, and a true patriot, who commanded the respect alike of ene-



SLAVERY DEBATE IN CONGRESS

The
Presi-
dent's
Cabinet

mies and friends. Having had no experience in civil affairs, he showed his wisdom by selecting an able Cabinet. His Secretary of State was John M. Clayton of Delaware; Secretary of the Treasury, William M. Meredith of Pennsylvania; Secretary of War, George W. Crawford of Georgia; Secretary of the Navy, William B. Preston of Virginia; Postmaster-General, Jacob Collamer of Vermont; Attorney-General, Reverdy Johnson of Maryland. Thomas Ewing was the first Secretary of the Interior.

On the 13th of February, 1850, the President submitted to Congress the constitution of California, with a petition to be admitted

to the Union. This action precipitated one of the fiercest debates that ever threw that body into a tumult. It was the old question of slavery, which had cast its baleful shadow for years across the path of progress. As will be recalled, the Missouri Compromise shut out slavery from all territory north of $36^{\circ} 30'$. Most of the territory acquired from Mexico was south of that parallel, while a part of California was north and a portion south of it. By the Missouri Compromise, therefore, Congress could not exclude slavery, for the question had to be decided by the inhabitants of the new territory. California had adopted a constitution that prohibited slavery. There were other elements of discord. Texas insisted that New Mexico belonged to her. Santa Fé denied this, and demanded a separate government. The opponents of slavery called for the abolition of the slave-trade in the District of Columbia, and the South complained because fugitive slaves, escaping to the free states, were helped by the people there, either to hide or to make their way to Canada, where they could not be reclaimed by their owners.

Colonel Monroe, the military commander in New Mexico, following private instructions from Washington, called a convention of the people, who formed a state government, and applied for admission to the Union. Texas was incensed, and prepared to seize the territory. The South supported Texas, whose success meant the addition of a large slave area to the Union, and the North for the same reason opposed the movement. The debates in Congress were marked by intense bitterness. Pistols were drawn, and the South threatened to secede from the Union, whose fabric was shaken to its foundations. The country was alarmed, for never before had so fearful a peril threatened its existence.

Once more, and for the last time, Henry Clay poured oil upon the troubled waters. He submitted a compromise measure, including so many details that it was named the "Omnibus Bill." It was submitted to the Senate on the 25th of January, 1850, and provided for the admission of California as a state; the establishment of territorial governments over the rest of the territories, without mention of slavery; the abolishment of the traffic in slaves in the District of Columbia, but declaring it inexpedient to abolish slavery there without the consent of the citizens and also of the Marylanders, and assuming the debt of Texas. Daniel Webster supported this measure with all his eloquence and ability. John C. Calhoun opposed it, but was too

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QuestionQuarrels
in Con-
gressThe
"Omni-
bus Bill"



Millard Fillmore

feeble to take part, and his argument was read by Senator Mason. Calhoun died a few weeks later. Thus the most formidable obstacle to the measure was removed. The Omnibus Bill admitted California as a free state, and with its boundaries as they have remained; Utah territory was organized without mention of slavery; New Mexico, with a recognition of her right to the portions claimed by Texas, was made a territory and could do as she pleased concerning slavery; Texas was to receive ten million dollars for giving up her claim to New Mexico; the slave trade, but not slavery, was abolished in the District of Columbia; and it was provided that all slaves escaping into free states should be liable to arrest and return to slavery. The furious debates were renewed when the Omnibus Bill was offered for consideration. Civil war seemed to be certain; but, on the 9th of July, a few words of Daniel Webster soothed the turbulent passions for the time. He announced that President Taylor was dying. A few hours later he passed away.

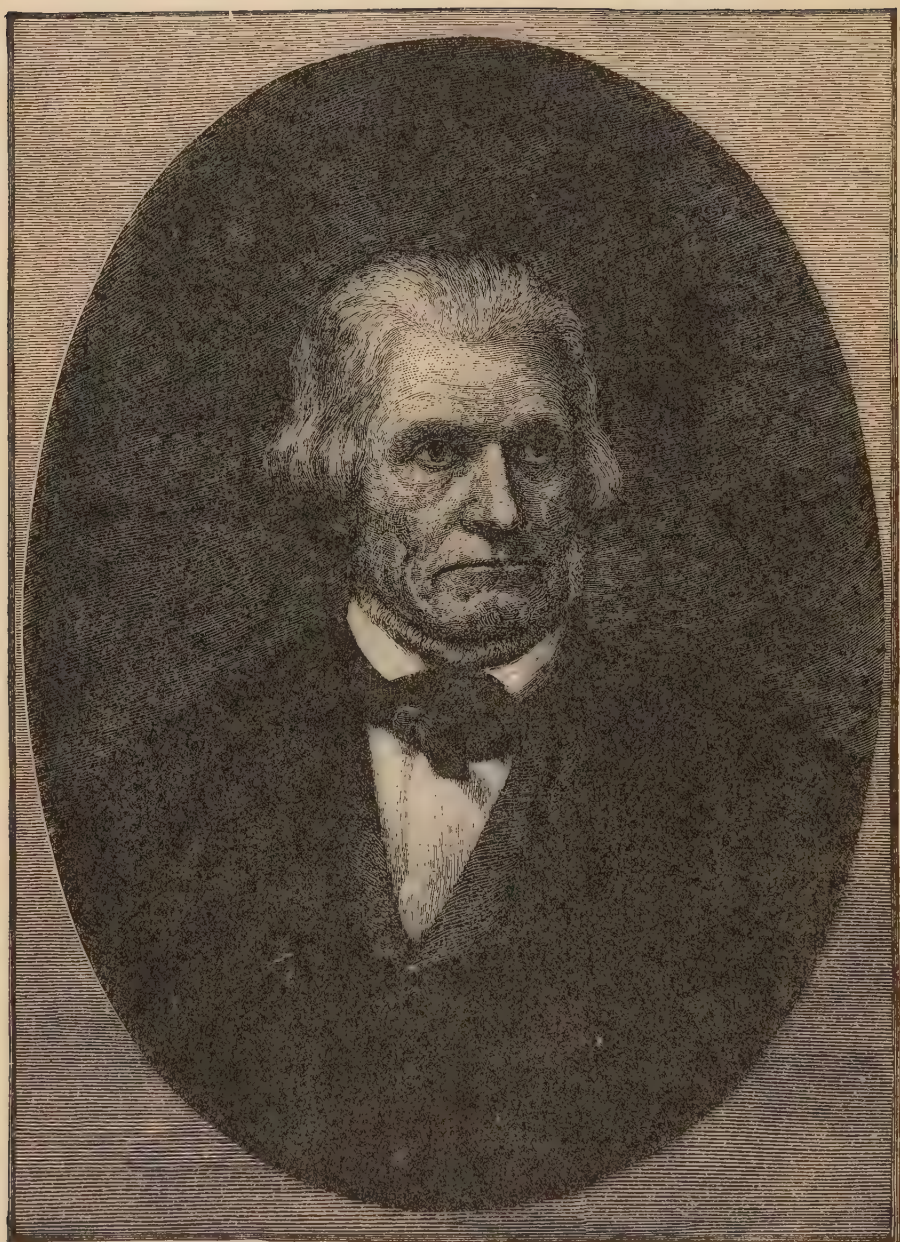
On the 10th of July, Vice-President Fillmore was sworn into office as President. He was born at Sumner Hill, New York, February 7, 1800. He was a lawyer and Whig representative in Congress in 1833-35 and 1837-43. In 1847, he was elected comptroller of New York state. He died at Buffalo in 1874. Upon taking the oath of office, Fillmore received the resignation of all of Taylor's Cabinet and appointed an entirely new one, consisting of Daniel Webster, Secretary of State (succeeded in 1852 by Edward Everett of Massachusetts); Thomas Corwin of Ohio, Secretary of the Treasury; Charles M. Conrad of Louisiana, Secretary of War; Thomas M. T. M'Kenna of Pennsylvania, Alexander H. H. Stuart of Virginia, Secretary of the Interior; William A. Graham of North Carolina, John P. Kennedy of Maryland, Secretary of the Navy; Nathan K. Hall of New York, Samuel D. Hubbard of Connecticut, Postmaster-General; John J. Crittenden of Kentucky, Attorney-General.

The several bills included in the Compromise Act were adopted with slight modifications, and the signature of the President in September made them law. Large concessions had been made to the South, but she was still dissatisfied. That which irritated many in the North was the provision for the arrest and return of fugitive slaves from the free states. The "Underground Railroad," as it was termed, had been in operation for years. By that is meant a system among the Abolitionists by which the escape and safety of slaves

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Presi-
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The
"Under-
ground
Rail-
road"



JOHN C. CALHOUN

were facilitated or secured. They provided hiding-places for the fugitives, furnished them with food and clothing, kept them concealed from the officers whose duty it was to help their owners recapture them, and secretly conducted them to some point farther north, where other friends took charge of them. This was continued until the slave reached the soil of Canada. There he was in British dominion, from which he could not be taken by law. This feature of the bill, as has been said, was irritating to the North, where there were many who vowed that they would violate it whenever the chance offered, no matter what penalty was incurred. Daniel Webster's decisive support of the Compromise Act of 1850 closed his prospects of political advancement. It drove from him many of his supporters and shut out forever his alluring hope of the presidency.

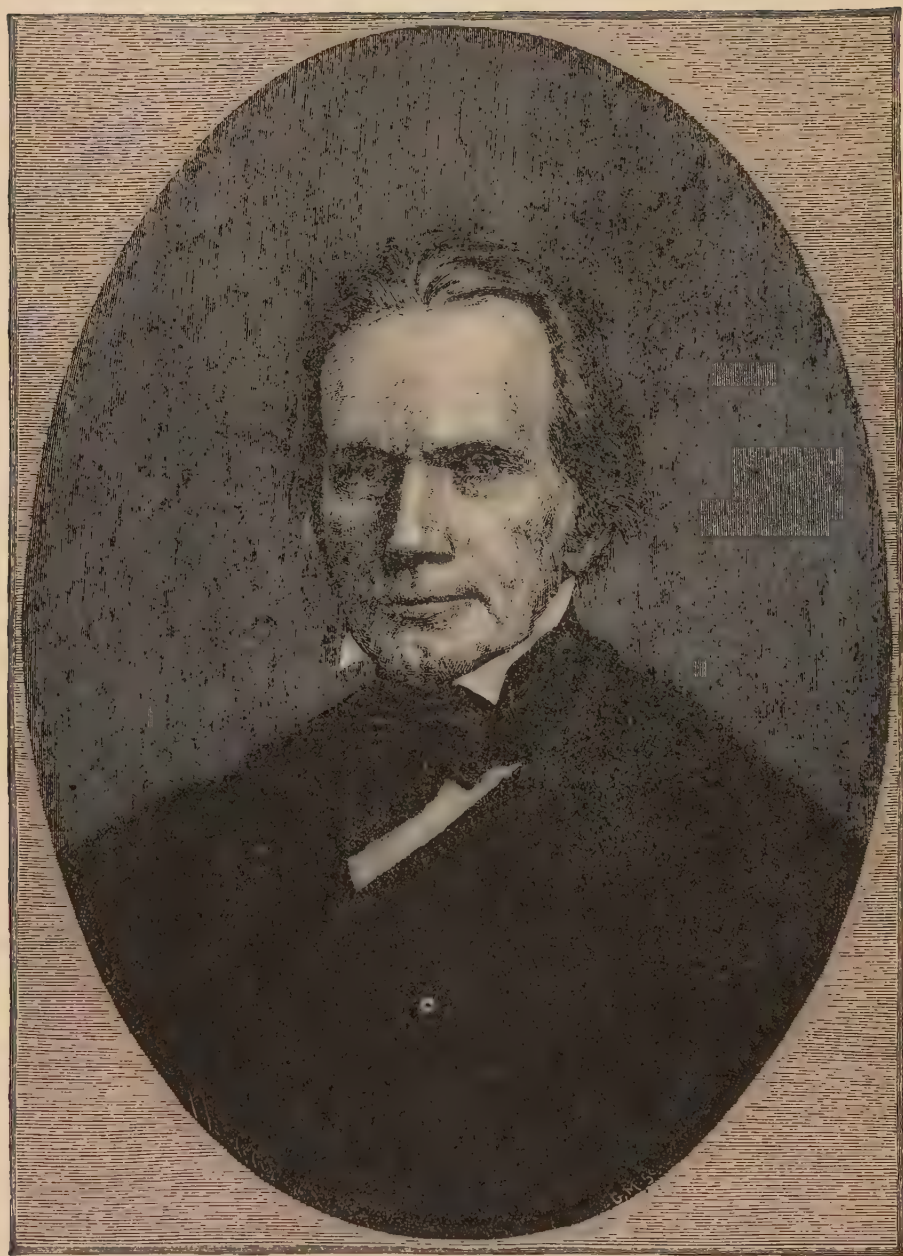
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California, which became a member of the Federal Union, September 9, 1850, has an interesting history. It was named New Albion by Sir Francis Drake, who sailed along its coast in 1579. Mission houses were established by the Catholic Spaniards, at San Diego in 1769, and in San Francisco in 1776. The origin of the name is uncertain, but it is believed to have been the name of a character in an old Spanish romance. At the opening of the nineteenth century, there were eighteen missions in California, with more than ten thousand converts. The revolt of Mexico, in 1822, against Spain, overthrew the power of that nation in California, and the Franciscan monks were deprived of their wealth and influence. There were not five thousand white people in the country in 1820. Captain Fremont made several exploring expeditions to the Pacific coast from 1843 to 1850, and even later, and a few emigrants from the United States settled in the country. When California was ceded to us, at the close of the war with Mexico, it included, in addition to the present state, Nevada, Arizona, Utah, and parts of Kansas, Wyoming, Colorado, and New Mexico.

History
of Cali-
fornia

We have learned of the great stream of emigration to California, which followed the discovery of gold in January, 1848. The name of San Francisco was adopted in 1847, in lieu of Yerba Buena. The growth of the state in population, its mineral and vegetable productions, and its prosperity are unexampled in the history of the United States.

The three foremost American statesmen of the period died during the term of Fillmore. They were John C. Calhoun of South Caro-



HENRY CLAY

lina, who passed away in March, 1850; Henry Clay of Kentucky, who died in June, 1852; and Daniel Webster of New Hampshire, whose death took place in October, 1852.

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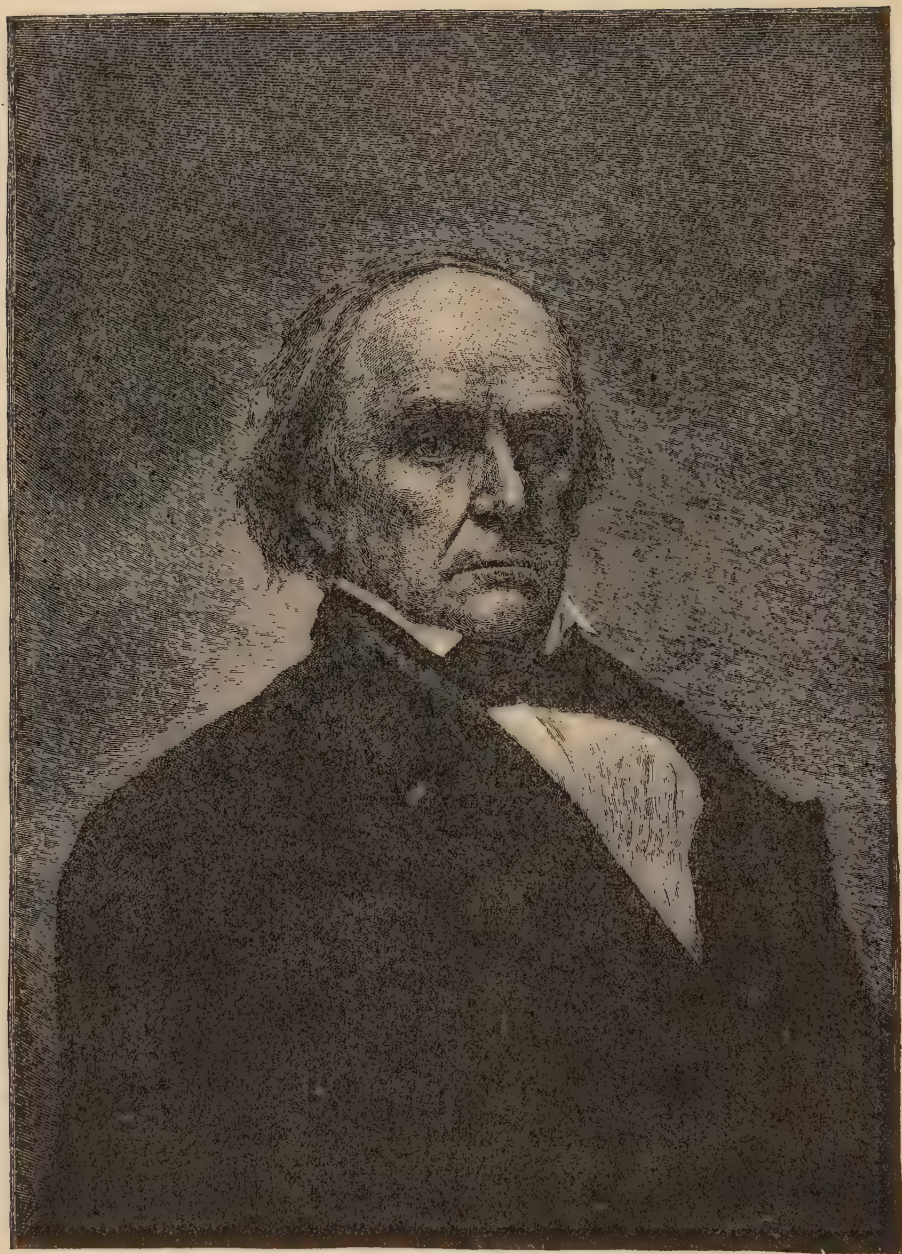
Calhoun was an intense Southerner and the most prominent advocate of state sovereignty. His public life extended over forty years, and he did what no other Vice-President had ever done—he resigned his office. He was noted for his keen logic, his clear statement and demonstration of facts, and for his deep earnestness. Webster, his strongest opponent, said of him that “he had the indisputable basis of all high character, unspotted integrity, and honor unimpeached. Nothing groveling, low, or meanly selfish came near his head or his heart.” Henry Clay was a candidate for the presidency three times, but never attained to it, and yet no American in his day was ever more idolized than he. He had slight means of education in his youth, his father being very poor and at death’s door when the son was an infant. It may be said that he educated himself, taking especial pains to cultivate the graces of oratory. His great success as a lawyer and advocate was largely due to his winsomeness of manner, which frequently captivated his bitterest opponents. His strong will and sense of honor were as firm and lofty as were those of Jackson. A political opponent once said of him: “If I were to write his epitaph, I would inscribe as the highest eulogy on the stone which shall mark his resting place: ‘Here lies a man who was in public service for fifty years, and never attempted to deceive his countrymen.’”

Calhoun
and
Clay

Daniel Webster was a profound statesman and jurist, and probably the most eloquent orator that ever used the English tongue. He was shy in his youth, but gave indications of the wonderful genius which afterwards lifted him to unapproachable heights. His father stinted himself to send his son to college. After his graduation his rise to eminence was rapid. The sweep and rhythm of his majestic sentences, the grandeur of his imagery, the massive force of his logic, and his impressive personality, held his auditors spellbound. Though he and Clay were disappointed in never attaining the chair of the presidency, the seat would have given neither an added honor, for they are enshrined forever in the love and admiration of their countrymen.

Webster

As has been seen the course of early discoveries on the American continent led through the West India islands. The islands remained under Spanish dominion. The peninsula of Florida being also for



DANIEL WEBSTER

many years a Spanish colony, an intimate relationship was early established between the island of Cuba and the mainland, which afterwards became the territory of the United States. Thus it happened that from the very beginning of American history there has been a "Cuban Question," producing such friction as has made military and diplomatic interference and adjustment by the United States necessary from time to time. These episodes find their place in this record in due order.

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The Cubans from the earliest days sought to throw off the Spanish yoke. In these efforts they found much sympathy in the United States. In the early fifties General Lopez organized an expedition in this country to aid the Cubans in their struggle for liberty. Spain at this time had forty thousand troops in Cuba. Lopez, in August, 1851, landed on the northern coast of the island with five hundred men. Colonel W. L. Crittenden of the United States army, a graduate of West Point, was a son of the United States Attorney-General. He resigned from the army and joined Lopez that he might aid the Cubans. Upon landing, Lopez left Crittenden with one hundred men to guard the baggage and ammunition, while Lopez himself, with the other four hundred men, pushed forward into the interior.

Expedi-
tion to
Aid
Cubans

The fate of Crittenden was heroic and tragic. Lopez and his force were overwhelmed and captured before they had gone forty miles. Crittenden and his troops, after making a desperate resistance were compelled to surrender. He and his men were taken to Havana, and, without trial, condemned to die, August 16, 1851. In the presence of an immense multitude, the prisoners were ordered to kneel facing a stone wall, and with their backs towards the soldiers a few paces distant. When Crittenden was commanded to kneel, he turned about and, straightening up, exclaimed: "A Kentuckian never turns his back on an enemy; and kneels only to his God!" And standing thus, facing his executioners, he was shot to death.

Lopez and his ringleaders, after their capture, were also taken to Havana, where all of them were shot. So ended this first unofficial and ill-advised American intervention in Cuba.

England and France, which nations were always extremely jealous of encroachments upon their possessions, saw in the sympathy of the United States with Cuba evidence that it was our purpose to secure by annexation or absorption, sooner or later, not only Cuba, but

The
Cuban
Question

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all the West India islands, where those two nations had considerable possessions. To avert this, these two nations asked the United States to make a treaty with them, which should secure Cuba to Spain, by an agreement on our part to disclaim, "now and forever hereafter, all intention to obtain possession of the island of Cuba"; and "to discountenance all such attempts in that direction on the part of any individual or power whatever."

Edward Everett, our Secretary of State, replied that the question was an American and not a European one, and not properly within the scope of the interference of European cabinets; that the United States did not intend to violate any existing neutrality laws; that our government claimed the right to act regarding Cuba, independently of any other power, and that it could not view with indifference the fall of Cuba into the hands of any other power than Spain. This was in the true spirit of the Monroe Doctrine, so dear to all Americans. France did not reply, although Great Britain did, but the diplomatic correspondence came to a close in February, 1853, without accomplishing anything.

Settle-
ment of
the Fish-
ery Dis-
pute

A treaty made with Great Britain in 1818 allowed American fishermen to fish outside of a line drawn three miles from shore. England maintained that this line should be considered as extending from one headland to another, which, as will be noted, excluded our fishermen from all the bays and inlets. We insisted that the line should follow the curvings of the shore, thereby giving us entrance to the waters from which we were shut out by the other interpretation. As the dispute grew warm, each nation sent vessels of war to the waters in dispute. The quarrel was settled in 1854, by the adoption of the law as maintained by us.

Attempts
to Reach
the
North
Pole

There seems always to have been a strange fascination in the attempts to reach the North Pole. These adventures were in progress for hundreds of years, and resulted in many serious disasters to the adventurous explorers. Great interest was felt in this country, during Fillmore's administration, in an expedition sent out by Great Britain in 1845. It was in charge of Sir John Franklin, who was hopeful of finding the open polar sea, by which he could make his way to the Pacific. Year after year passed, and no news came from Franklin. It was known that he had gone beyond the Eskimo country, but the ships which were dispatched in search of him returned without tidings. Lady Franklin, his wife, would not,

however, give up hope, and to her efforts was due the sending of several other expeditions to the extreme north. An expedition was fitted out by Henry Grinnell, a wealthy merchant of New York, which left that city in May, 1850, in charge of Lieutenant De Haven. It returned to the United States in October, 1851, with news that the graves of three of Franklin's men, made in April, 1846, had been found near the southern entrance to Wellington Channel. No other traces were discovered, and the tidings caused a profound sensation in Europe and America.

Our government then assisted Grinnell in fitting out a second expedition, which sailed on the last day of May, 1853, under charge of Dr. Elisha Kent Kane, who was surgeon and naturalist of the first expedition. The winter was passed on the coast of Greenland, where the ships were frozen fast. The shores of that dismal region were explored during the following summer, but the ships were immovably held, being able neither to advance nor withdraw, and a second winter was passed in the land of desolation. Then, as the explorers did not return, an expedition was sent after them. Without waiting for relief, Kane had set out with his men in open boats, and, after a voyage of thirteen hundred miles, reached a Danish settlement in Greenland, where they were found by the relief expedition. They reached New York October 11, 1855, and though they brought no news of Sir John Franklin, they were welcomed like those that had risen from the dead.

While Lieutenant De Haven was absent, Captain McClure left England to make further search for Franklin. He entered the Arctic Ocean from the Pacific through Bering Strait, and, forcing his way eastward, reached the Atlantic. Thus he discovered the long-sought northwest passage, which, however, is so blocked with ice that it is useless for the purposes of commerce. Less interest had been felt in the South Pole, because it was surrounded by prodigious fields of land and ice, and it appeared that it could not be approached so near as could the North Pole. As long ago as 1838, our government had sent an expedition thither, under command of Lieutenant Charles Wilkes. He was absent four years, during which period he sailed a distance nearly equal to four times around the globe. He coasted the Antarctic continent for seventeen hundred miles, and brought back many interesting products of those regions, but accomplished nothing of practical value.

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Grinnell's
Arctic
Expeditions

Discovery
of the
North-
west
Passage

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Perry's
Japan
Expedi-
tion

The settlement of California opened an increasing commerce across the Pacific. Japan was then a comparatively unknown country, which long shut itself out from the rest of the world. Hoping to establish friendly relations with her, our government sent an expedition of seven vessels thither, in the summer of 1853, under command of Commodore Matthew G. Perry. He bore with him a letter from the President to the Mikado or Emperor of Japan, asking his consent to the negotiation of a treaty of friendship and commerce between the two governments. The Mikado assented, and friendly relations have been maintained ever since. The development of Japan within the next few years was one of the marvels of history. In a war with China, having ten times her population, she utterly routed her neighbor, and, had she chosen, could have overrun and destroyed that vast empire. She sprang at a bound to the position of a first-class power, ranking almost beside Russia, Germany, France, and England. This stupendous success is due to her wisdom in becoming thoroughly civilized. She sent many of her brightest young men abroad to be educated, introduced modern educational systems, and all the latest discoveries in science and war. Her diplomats proved to be nearly the equal of any in Europe. The nation became enlightened, progressive, patriotic, and enterprising, and might well serve, though not professing Christianity, as a model in many respects for other nations.

Temper-
ance
Move-
ment

No one will question the fearful evils resulting from alcoholic drunkenness. It has caused unutterable woe and sorrow, and blighted innumerable thousands of lives. The only safe course for every individual is never to taste, touch, or handle intoxicating drinks. How to check or lessen its evils has been a problem which puzzled good people for generations, and long remained an unsolved question. In the first half of the nineteenth century drunkenness was much more common than it was in later times. It seemed then as if everybody drank. The man who refused was looked upon as eccentric. Workmen expected to be furnished with liquor, and the caller to whom it was not offered felt himself slighted. There were clergymen who not only indulged in strong drink, but were even the owners of distilleries. Drunkenness became so general that, about 1830, the "Washingtonian Movement," as it was called, was organized with a view of checking the evil. The movement attracted thousands. Those who joined were not obliged to sign a pledge of

KANE IN THE ARCTIC REGIONS



total abstinence, but drunkards were required to make a solemn promise to reform and to try to influence others by setting them a good example. The temperance people secured the passage in Maine, in 1851, of a law which forbade the making or selling of intoxicating drinks within the state, except for medical purposes. Efforts, in some cases successful, were made to pass similar laws in other states, and the advocates of temperance were sleepless in their efforts to stem the tide of one of the most fearful evils that ever afflicted humanity.

Three thousand miles separated the Atlantic from the Pacific. The rapid development of our western coast showed the need of a railway connecting the two seaboard, but the task of building one was gigantic. The difficulties to be overcome were so formidable that capitalists shrank from undertaking it without government help. Congress, in 1853, ordered surveys to be made in order to find the most available routes through the mountains, but the work of building the railway was not begun until 1862.

In the summer of 1852, our country was visited by Louis Kossuth and several of his fellow patriots. They had been engaged in a struggle to secure the independence of Hungary, their native country, but were crushed by Austria and Russia. They came to America to ask our aid. But we were following the one only safe and wise policy of Washington, which was to have nothing to do with the quarrels on the other side of the Atlantic. They had troubles there all the time, and if we allowed our sympathies to control us, we should never be at peace. Kossuth and his friends, however, were cordially welcomed, and treated with respect and kindness. At that time most of the American men and boys were wearing the "Kossuth hat"—a compliment which at least showed the sympathies of our people. The patriot possessed remarkable eloquence, and his speeches were of the highest order. One striking incident resulted from his visit, which will be told in the next chapter. Kossuth finally returned to his own country, where his government received more liberal treatment, and the patriot lived to pass the age of ninety.*

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Need of
an Over-
land
Railway

Visit of
Louis
Kos-
suth

*Although he was a Hungarian, Kossuth was almost as eloquent when speaking in the English language as in his own native Magyar. He delivered in England and in this country several powerful orations imploring aid for his beloved Hungary.

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Presi-
dential
Election
of 1852

Since Harrison and Taylor had been so successful in consequence of their military record, the Whigs now put forward another military officer of their own party—General Winfield S. Scott—as their candidate. At the convention which was held in Baltimore in June, 1852, Daniel Webster, General Scott, and President Fillmore were put in nomination, and fifty-eight ballots were cast before Scott was selected. William A. Graham of North Carolina, late Secretary of the Navy, received the nomination for the vice-presidency. The candidates before the Democratic convention, also held later in the same month in Baltimore, were James Buchanan, Lewis Cass, William L. Marcy, and Stephen A. Douglas. On the forty-ninth ballot, the nomination fell to Franklin Pierce, who was the “dark horse,” not mentioned or thought of until more than forty ballots had been taken. The Free Democrats put forward John P. Hale of New Hampshire, and George W. Julian of Indiana. The result of the election was astonishing. Pierce carried twenty-seven states to Scott’s four, and received 254 electoral votes to 42 for Scott. Hale carried no state, and received no electoral vote. William R. King of Alabama, the Vice-President elected with Mr. Pierce, was at the time in Cuba, in broken health. He took the oath of office there, and, returning to his native state, died April 18, 1853.



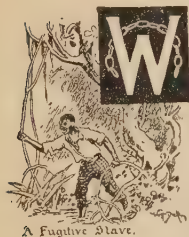


CHAPTER XVIII

PIERCE'S ADMINISTRATION—1853-1857

[*Author's Note:* Although Franklin Pierce was born among the "granite hills" of New Hampshire, his sympathies were entirely with the slaveholders of the South. He signed the Kansas-Nebraska bill, which was in large measure the cause that led to war seven years later. He was, as long as he lived, a warm friend of his Secretary of War, Jefferson Davis, and opposed in every possible way the coercion of the seceded states.

The explorations of Fremont in the far west, the "Ostend circular," recalled by the later conflict in Cuba, and the story of the formation at Pittsburgh of the Republican party, are among the interesting matters of this administration. "Life and Explorations of Fremont," by Bigelow and Upham, and the histories of the United States already cited, are the special authorities.]



WHEN the news was telegraphed through the country that Franklin Pierce had received the Democratic nomination for the presidency, the general inquiry was, "Who is he?" Until his name was brought before the Baltimore convention, he was hardly known outside his native state; but it was not long before his history was familiar to all from one end of the land to the other. He was born in Hillsborough, N. H., November 23, 1804, so that, being but forty-eight years of age, he was the youngest President we had ever had. He was a successful lawyer, and represented his state as a member of the House of Representatives from 1833 to 1837, and as United States Senator from 1837 to 1842. He joined the army at the outbreak of the Mexican War, and became a brigadier-general. When he entered the White House, the shadow of a great grief rested upon him and his wife. Their last surviving child had just



Franklin Pierce

died, and Mrs. Pierce never fully recovered from the blow. President Pierce chose the following advisers, and the appointments had the distinction of being the only presidential cabinet up to that time that remained unchanged throughout an entire administration: William L. Marcy of New York, Secretary of State; James Guthrie of Kentucky, Secretary of the Treasury; Jefferson Davis of Mississippi, Secretary of War; Robert McClelland of Michigan, Secretary of the Interior; James C. Dobbin of North Carolina, Secretary of the Navy; James Campbell of Pennsylvania, Postmaster-General; Caleb Cushing of Massachusetts, Attorney-General.

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CONSOLIDATION AND
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The
Presi-
dent's
Cabinet

Reference was made in the preceding chapter to the visit to this country, in the summer of 1852, of Louis Kossuth, the Hungarian patriot, together with several of his friends. One of these was named Martin Koszta. He was much pleased with the reception given to him and his comrades. Instead of returning to his own country with them, he decided to make his home in the United States. He saw the great advantages to be gained here, and felt that he and his family could be happier than in his oppressed land. Accordingly, he engaged in business in New York, and in July, 1852, declared under oath his intention of becoming a citizen of the United States. The next year, having business in Smyrna, Koszta went there and remained for some time undisturbed, as indeed he might have expected, since Smyrna was not on Austrian soil. But Koszta had so angered the Austrian government that a plot was hatched to capture him. On June 21, 1853, a party of Greeks in Smyrna, hired by the Austrian consul, overpowered Koszta, hustled him into a boat, and took him aboard an Austrian ship-of-war, the *Huzzar*, which was lying in the harbor. It is said that this ship was in command of no less a person than the Archduke John, brother of the Emperor, and admiral of the Austrian navy. Martin Koszta was put in irons, and otherwise treated as a criminal. The next day, when all Smyrna was talking about this, a sloop-of-war, the *St. Louis*, Commander Ingraham, sailed into the harbor. Captain Ingraham heard the story of the kidnaping, and learned the fact from Koszta's friends that the kidnaped man was an American citizen. Captain Ingraham at once went on board the *Huzzar*, and courteously asked permission to see Koszta. The Austrian commander, after some hesitation, granted the request. Commander Ingraham assured himself that Koszta was entitled to the protection of the

The
Koszta
Incident

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American flag. He demanded his release of the Austrian commander; and when it was refused, sent a note to the nearest United States official, Consul Brown, at Constantinople. While he was awaiting an answer, six Austrian war-ships sailed into the harbor and took up positions near the *Huzzar*. On June 29, before any answer had come from Consul Brown, the *St. Louis* noticed unusual signs of activity on board the *Huzzar*, and pretty soon she began to get under way.

Captain Ingraham immediately put the *St. Louis* in such a position that the *Huzzar* could not pass, and cleared his decks for action. The *Huzzar* hove to, and then Captain Ingraham went aboard and said to the Austrian commander, who received him with great courtesy:

"What is the meaning of this move on your part?"

"We propose to sail for home," replied the Austrian. "The consul has ordered us to take our prisoner to Austria."

"You will pardon me," said Captain Ingraham very calmly. "But I hope you will not leave this harbor with the American gentleman you have kidnapped. If you do, I shall be compelled to resort to extreme measures."

The Austrian looked around the harbor at the line of friendly war-ships, and then looked at the *St. Louis* with her decks cleared, and then smiled pleasantly at Captain Ingraham, and said that he thought such remarks were extremely rash, and that the *Huzzar* would do as she pleased. Ingraham bowed, and betook himself to the *St. Louis*. He had no sooner got aboard than he said:

"Clear the guns for action!"

And the archduke had the pleasure of seeing the batteries of the *St. Louis* turned upon him. He realized that, having the wrong side of the matter, he had put himself in a bad position. The *Huzzar* was put about, and sailed back to her old anchorage. The archduke then sent word to Captain Ingraham that he would await the arrival of the note from Mr. Brown.

On the afternoon of July 1, Captain Ingraham received his reply. The consul at Constantinople commended his course, and told him to do whatever he thought best to prevent an outrage to an American. Late that evening Captain Ingraham sent an officer aboard the *Huzzar* with a note. The note formally demanded the release of Mr. Koszta, and said that unless the prisoner was delivered aboard

Bravery
of Cap-
tain In-
graham

the *St. Louis* by four o'clock the next afternoon, Captain Ingraham would take him from the Austrians by force. The archduke sent back a formal refusal. At eight o'clock on the next morning, July 2, Ingraham once more cleared his decks for action, and trained his batteries so that the *Huzzar* would get their full force at the first discharge. The seven Austrian war-vessels cleared their decks and put their men at the guns.

All this while great excitement had prevailed in Smyrna; and when the citizens saw these last hostile demonstrations, they crowded the shores, eager to see the one-sided battle, which all knew would not end so long as the American flag floated above water. At ten o'clock the Austrian sent an officer to Ingraham. This officer tried to temporize, but Ingraham refused to listen to him. He said: "To avoid the worst, I will agree to let the man be delivered to the French consul in Smyrna until your government has a chance to act. But he must be delivered there, or I will take him. I cannot fail. My cause is just. I have stated the time."

Again the Austrian sent a man to Captain Ingraham. But this time the latter refused to receive him. Then the Austrian consul-general came out from Smyrna and tried his diplomacy. Captain Ingraham simply repeated that the French consul must have Koszta by four o'clock or there would be trouble. At twelve o'clock a boat left the side of the *Huzzar* with Koszta in it, and one hour afterwards the French consul sent word that Koszta was in his keeping. Later in the day several of the Austrian war-vessels sailed out of the harbor. Then came long negotiations between Secretary of State William L. Marcy and the Austrian chargé d'affaires at Washington, M. Hulsemann, at the end of which Austria admitted that the United States was right, apologized, and released all claim upon Mr. Koszta.

For this intrepid and patriotic action, Captain Ingraham received a gold medal and a vote of thanks from Congress, a gold medal from the citizens of New York, medals and other testimonials from several American citizens, and a present of a fine chronometer and an engrossed letter from the workingmen of England, raised by a penny subscription.

Since Fremont made his last exploring expedition in the West during the administration of President Pierce, it is proper that a summary of the work done by the man whose achievements gave

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Victory
of Cap-
tain In-
graham

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Fremont's
 First
 Expedition

Fremont's
 Second
 and
 Third
 Expeditions

him the name of "The Pathfinder" should be given at this time in these pages. Fremont's first expedition, which, like the two following, was under the direction of the government, left the site of Kansas City, June 10, 1842. It included twenty-eight men, who followed the general line of the Kansas and Platte rivers. The country before them was much disturbed by Indians, who were unusually hostile, and Fremont had not gone far when he was advised to turn back. He pushed on, however, to the Wind River Mountains, where, on the 15th of August, he climbed one of the loftiest peaks, and unfurled the Stars and Stripes. This peak bears the name of the explorer, and was the farthest point westward reached by him. The company returned to St. Louis in October. This venture, though it gained much valuable knowledge, took Fremont only to the borders of the Great West. He was ordered by the government to go farther and learn more. This time he took thirty-nine men with him, starting in the spring of 1843, and not returning until August of the following year. His orders were to complete the survey of the line of communication between the State of Missouri and the tide-water region of the Columbia river, besides which he was to explore the country south of that river, of which territory little was known. The expedition accomplished much. It arrived in sight of Salt Lake in September, visited Oregon and California, and many of the principal streams of the region, and the information brought back made necessary numerous changes in the maps of those districts. For the first time the existence of Great Salt Lake, Little Salt Lake, Klamath Lake, the Sierra Nevada Mountains, the valleys of the Sacramento and San Joaquin, the Three Parks, and the Great Basin was made known. The men suffered greatly from cold, hunger, and the hostility of the Indians, but Fremont had done valuable work, and was rewarded by receiving the brevet rank of captain. The third expedition took its departure in the autumn of 1845, with the purpose of completing the exploration of the Great Basin, extending the survey west and southwest, and ascertaining the best route to the Pacific in that lower latitude. The men suffered again from lack of food and severe weather, as well as from the Indians, who sought every opportunity to annoy them. Fremont knew, at the time of leaving home, that war would soon break out with Mexico, and this fact had necessarily much effect



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FREMONT IN THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS

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Fremont's
Fourth
Expedition

upon his movements. Mention has already been made of the part he took in the conquest of California.

Meanwhile General Kearny and Commodore Stockton had quarreled. Fremont recognized Stockton as his superior officer, in consequence of which General Kearny preferred charges against him, and he was tried by court-martial. Fremont was censured, and resigned his commission in the army, refusing to accept it again when it was afterwards tendered to him. He undertook his fourth expedition in the fall of 1848, it being under his own direction and independent of the government. His object this time was to discover the best route to California, by way of the upper waters of the Rio Grande and the Indian country. On his previous expeditions his guide had been the famous mountaineer, Kit Carson, a man unrivaled in his knowledge of the country; but he was not with him now. The hunter employed was ignorant of the country, and caused the frightful disasters that followed.

A start was made in the fall of the year, since Fremont wished to learn what obstacles had to be overcome during the winter. The route selected led through the country of the Utahs, Apaches, Navahoes, Comanches, and Kiowas. They were among the fiercest of Indians, who were almost continually at war with the government. The company numbered thirty persons, some of whom had been with Fremont before, and were much attached to him. It was late in November when they reached the base of the first mountain range. The snow was so deep that their animals could hardly flounder through, and when the men dismounted it reached to their waists. Arriving at the other side of the range, they found themselves at the head of a broad, inviting valley. Fremont carefully scanned the country in front with his telescope, and saw a pass which led through the mountains. His guide insisted that his leader was mistaken. Fremont would not be convinced for some time; but unfortunately he acted upon the advice of the man, who had made a fatal blunder. Since the pass was not to be used, the party began climbing the mountain chain, which towered like an immense wall in front of them. They had to hammer down the snow with mauls before their mules could walk over it. By exhausting labor they finally reached the summit, where they were met by a gale as if it came directly from the North Pole. It was so terrible that neither man nor beast could withstand it. Many times the men had to drop on their faces

Sufferings of
the Explorers

to save themselves from being swept off their feet. The mules, more than a hundred in number, huddled together, and every one was frozen solid! They toppled over, without moving limb or muscle, like so many blocks of wood.

To stay where they were was to invite the fate of the animals, and it was impossible to push on in the teeth of the icy hurricane. Facing about, they forced a passage down the mountain-side until they found a slight protection from the wind. Then a fire was started, and by huddling together they escaped freezing to death. But they were still in a fearful situation. All their animals were dead, while their provisions were nearly gone. The nearest settlement was distant some ten days' travel. It looked as if every one must perish. Despair settled upon all the group except Fremont, who keenly felt his responsibility. He sent his guide and several of the hardiest men to the settlement, giving them ten days in which to reach it, and the same in which to return. Sixteen weary days dragged by, and the shivering party left behind were still alive. Fremont had been doubtful from the first about the ability of those whom he had sent forth to bring help. They were, moreover, in danger from the Indians; and, if they escaped them, were likely to succumb to cold and starvation. His misgivings continued to increase, and he concluded to follow them. He took four companions, intending, if he saw nothing of the others, to push on to the settlement and bring assistance to the poor fellows whom he was forced to leave in the mountains.

The snow reached to the armpits of the travelers, and their progress was exhausting; but they were accustomed to hardship, and toiled on. On the sixth day they stumbled upon the camp of their guide, who had set out with the first party. One of the men had died, and had been partly eaten by his companions. The three emaciated survivors were helped to their feet, and all tottered forward again. Some distance farther they came upon the tracks of Indians. Ordinarily they would have fled from them, but now they tried to find their enemies. Struggling to the bank of the frozen Del Norte, they saw an Indian taking water from a hole in the ice. The men divided, so as to surround and make him prisoner. Fremont was delighted to find that he was an old acquaintance. They had met several years before, and the explorer had given him a number of presents, which the warrior highly prized. He was pleased to meet

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Frightful
Hard-
ships

The
Last Ex-
tremity

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them, and proved an invaluable friend. He furnished them with four horses, and gave careful directions as to the shortest route to the nearest settlement. Finally the wanderers reached Taos, where their old friend Kit Carson gave them food and shelter. Supplies were immediately sent to those in the mountains. The poor fellows were in sore need. The time came when the last morsel of food was devoured, and they chewed their moccasins, and even the strings of their shoes to lessen the pangs of hunger. One proposed to eat the bodies of those that had died, but the others would not permit the dreadful act. Besides the suffering of these horrors, there was hardly an hour of all those awful days and nights that the thermometer did not mark twenty degrees below zero. One-third perished before the help sent by Fremont reached them.

Fremont remained at Taos until fully recovered, when he made his way to California, where he settled. Since reference must again be made to him, it may as well be added that he was chosen the first United States Senator from the Pacific state, and served for a short term. He was in Europe when he learned that the government had passed an appropriation for completing the survey which he had partially made. He returned, and set out on his fifth and last expedition, which was made in the years 1853 and 1854. His men suffered severely, but the object was fully attained. He crossed the Rocky Mountains at the sources of the Arkansas and Colorado rivers, passed through the Mormon settlements and the Great Basin, and discovered a number of passes, which discoveries have since proven to be of great value. Fremont served for a time as major-general in the Civil War, but without any special success. He died in New York in 1890.

Fremont's
Fifth
and
Last
Expedi-
tion

On February 28, 1854, the American steamship *Black Warrior* was seized in Havana harbor, and the vessel and cargo declared confiscated to the Spanish government, the charge being that she was aiding filibustering movements in Cuba. This high-handed act caused great excitement in this country, and it was in consequence proposed in the House of Representatives to suspend the laws of neutrality between the United States and Spain. This, however, was not done, but a special messenger was sent to Madrid to demand indemnity for the seizure of the ship. The trouble ended, though it gave an impetus to filibustering operations in Cuba. A number of

expeditions were fitted out, but the President issued a proclamation, on the 1st of June, which effectually stopped them.

At that time our representatives at the courts of Great Britain, France, and Spain were, respectively, Mr. Buchanan, Mr. Mason, and Mr. Soule. By direction of the President, they met late in the autumn of 1854 at Ostend, Belgium, to confer upon the best method of settling the difficulties in Cuba, and, if possible, of obtaining possession of the island. In a letter to our government, known as the Ostend circular, the representatives recommended that Cuba should be purchased, if possible; and, if that could not be done, that it should be taken by force. They said: "If Spain, actuated by stubborn pride and a false sense of honor, should refuse to sell Cuba to the United States, then by every law, human and divine, we shall be justified in wresting it from Spain, if we possess the power." This was an audacious proposition, and, it must be said, was discreditable to American diplomacy.

General William Walker was a daring filibuster who left San Francisco in 1853, and made a descent upon La Paz, in Lower California. The next spring he marched overland to Sonora, where he incited a revolt. His band was, however, scattered, and he himself made prisoner. The San Francisco authorities acquitted him on trial. His next act was to recruit a band of about sixty men and proceed to Central America. He landed at Nicaragua with peaceful professions, but almost immediately attempted to capture the nearest town. He was soon driven out, and escaped in a schooner; though, in September, 1855, he came back with a stronger force, and pushed his schemes with so much vigor that in the following month he seized Grenada, the capital, and placed one of his supporters (a Nicaraguan) in the presidential chair. This task was comparatively easy, since Nicaragua, just then, was enjoying one of her periodical revolutions. Walker, meanwhile, was joined by other adventurers from the States, and the governments on the isthmus combined to expel the invaders; but they were defeated by Walker, who caused himself to be elected governor of Nicaragua. He now sent a Roman Catholic priest, named Vigil, as his ambassador to Washington, and the President welcomed him. Walker ruled like a despot for two years; but eventually the alliance against him proved too strong, and he was compelled, in March, 1857, to surrender his forces; but he personally escaped, through the help of Commodore Davis, of our navy. He

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The
Ostend
Circular

Walker
the Fili-
buster

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Execu-
tion of
Walker

appeared again in the latter part of the same year; but he and his followers were seized by Commodore Paulding and sent to New York, to be tried for violating the neutrality laws. Walker, as usual, was acquitted. He sailed with his next expedition from Mobile. He was arrested for leaving port without a clearance, and acquitted by the court at New Orleans. Once more he went to Nicaragua, and attacked Truxillo in Honduras; but the President of that state, with the aid of a British man-of-war, captured him and his force. Walker was tried, pronounced guilty, and on the 3d of September, 1860, was shot.

There were many outrages by Indians in Oregon and Washington territories in 1855. General Wool was sent from San Francisco to Portland, to make a campaign against them. The Indians were conquered in 1856, but trouble did not wholly disappear for several years. It was suspected, indeed, that the red-men were urged to hostilities by the agents of the Hudson Bay Fur Company, in British Columbia.

English
Recruit-
ing in
this
Country

England at this time was engaged in a war with Russia, and a number of recruits were enlisted in our country for service in the Crimea. This was a violation of the neutrality laws, though it was sanctioned, or at least winked at, by the British minister at Washington, and other officials. He and the English consuls at New York, Philadelphia, and Cincinnati were dismissed by our government. England was irritated at this unfriendly act, as she deemed it; but we were in the right, and a new minister and new consuls soon took the places of the dismissed.

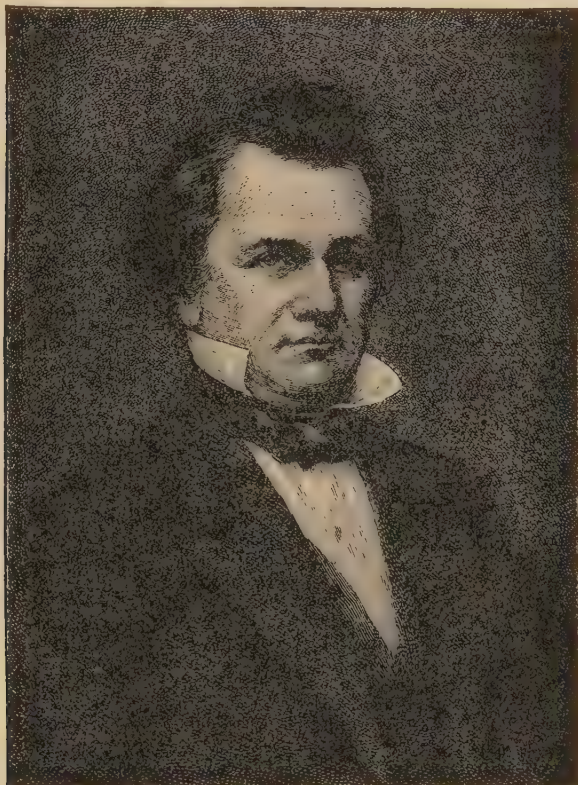
The boundary between the United States and Mexico was established in 1853, by a treaty which secured to us 45,535 square miles in southern Arizona and New Mexico, for which we paid \$10,000,000. This was the Gadsden Purchase, so called after James Gadsden, our minister to Mexico, who negotiated it.

A Reci-
procity
Treaty
with
England

A reciprocity treaty was made in 1854 with Great Britain, which opened to American citizens all the fisheries of British America, excepting those of Newfoundland; and, on our part, gave the British the right to share the American fisheries as far as the 36th parallel of north latitude. Commerce between the United States and British provinces in flour, breadstuffs, fish, animals, lumber, and many other natural products was made free. The St. Lawrence river and the Canadian canals were opened to American vessels. Our government

promised to urge the respective states to admit British vessels into their canals on the same terms. The wise agreement was made that from that time forward all disputes concerning the fisheries should be settled by arbitration. The reciprocity treaty, which was of manifest advantage to the commerce of both countries, lasted until

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STEPHEN A. DOUGLAS

1866, when, chiefly for political reasons, it was terminated by the United States.

In January, 1853, Senator Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, chairman of the Senate Committee on Territories, brought forward a bill which proposed to organize the immense area between Missouri, Iowa, and Minnesota, on the one hand, and the Pacific territories, on the other, into two territories. The southern area was to include the lands lying south of the 40th parallel of north latitude, and be known as Kansas, while that which lay to the north was to be desig-

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Repeal
of the
Missouri
Comprom-
ise

nated Nebraska. The bill was fiercely opposed by the Northern members of Congress, for it meant a repeal of the Missouri Compromise of 1821, inasmuch as it permitted slavery in both territories, though most of Nebraska lies north of the parallel named in that measure. Public meetings were called in the North, at which violent resolutions were passed condemning the bill, and it was bitterly fought in both branches of Congress. It passed the Senate, however, March 7, by a vote of 37 to 14, and the House of Representatives by a vote of 113 to 100. The measure was amended, in some respects, and signed by the President on May 31. The Missouri Compromise was thus repealed, and Nebraska and Kansas were left to do as they pleased with the question of slavery. Nebraska was so far north that no trouble occurred there. The sentiment was overwhelmingly against slavery, and the supporters of the institution attempted no real fight against the decision. It was far different, however, in Kansas. There the question was an open one, but the chances were in favor of freedom. Hardly had the Kansas-Nebraska Act passed when associations were formed in the North and West, and especially in New England, to send emigrants to Kansas. Churches furnished them with "Bibles and rifles," and they went forward with the resolve to hold their ground and fight slavery against all its adherents.

Civil
War in
Kansas

The South, meanwhile, had become alarmed at these preparations of settling Kansas with people from the free states. Consequently, societies were formed under various names, such as "Sons of the South," "Blue Lodges," "Friends' Society," etc., whose object was to send enough men into Kansas to out-vote those forwarded by the "Emigrant Aid Society," of New England. The slavery men organized many companies in Missouri, who bound themselves to help their friends across the border whenever such help was needed, and to assist by force of arms in driving the free-state men out of the territory. The road to Kansas for the Northern settlers led across Missouri. The people in the western part of the state refused to allow them to cross the region, whereupon the free-state parties took the roundabout course through Iowa, and entered Kansas from the north. The immigrants continued to gather from the north and south, and the feeling was so bitter that armed collisions took place. Mr. A. H. Reeder was sent into the territory as governor, in the autumn of 1854, when he ordered the election of a territorial legisla-



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THE CIVIL WAR IN KANSAS

From the Original Painting by Walter Russell

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Governor
Reeder
Recalled

ture. This, of necessity, would pass upon the question of slavery, and the struggle was at once opened. The Missourians came over with tents, artillery, and rifles, prepared to “repeat” their votes often enough to make victory sure. The whole number of legal voters in the territory was less than nine hundred; but when the votes were counted after the election, they numbered more than six thousand. The members of the legislature thus elected were supporters of slavery, and they began enacting laws for upholding it in Kansas. Governor Reeder vetoed every one of these measures, and at this the members saw that they were powerless with him in the executive chair, and asked President Pierce to recall him. The President did so, and Wilson Shannon, of Ohio, took his place. He was welcome, for he was known to be a strong slavery man.

Congres-
sional
Action

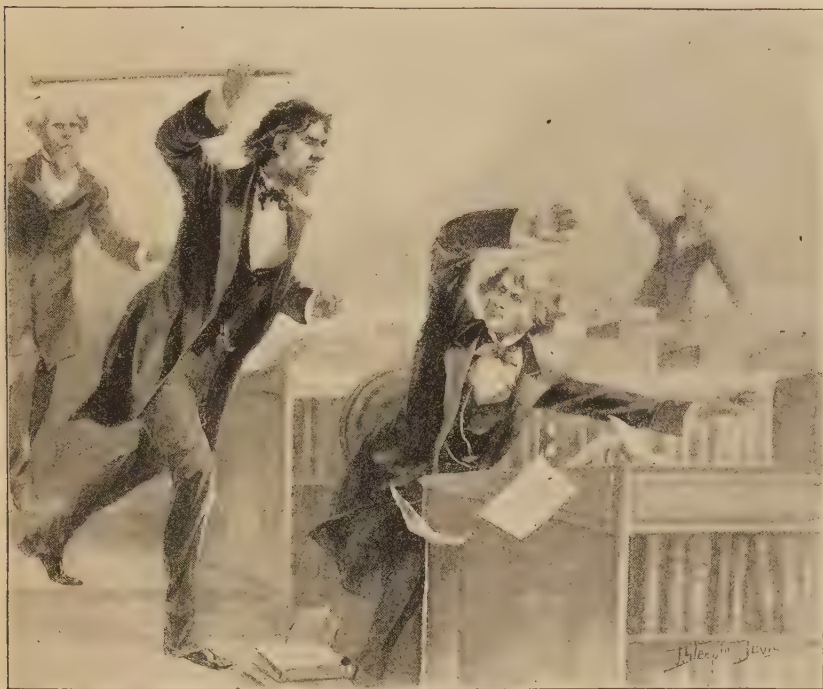
This pro-slavery legislature held its sessions at the town of Shawnee, close to Missouri. The actual settlers met in convention in September, 1855, and decided not to recognize the Shawnee legislature. A delegate convention met at Topeka, on the 19th of October, and framed a constitution, which was approved by the voters of the territory, and this made Kansas free. Previous to this, the pro-slavery men came together at Lecompton, in March, and adopted a constitution permitting slavery; and thus the issue stood. President Pierce, at this juncture, sent a message to Congress, in which he declared that the formation of a free-state government in Kansas was an act of rebellion, while what was passed in the previous March was valid. The violence in the distracted territory now became so great that Congress, in March, 1855, appointed a committee of three to go to the disturbed district and investigate the matter. This committee reported, in July, that neither election was regular, but that the different elections held in the territory before the formation of the state government had been as nearly legal as was possible in the disturbed condition, and that the constitution adopted by their delegates was the legal one. This constitution was the pro-slavery one.

Thus the civil war went on. The skies were reddened at night by the flames of burning buildings. Incensed men belonging to both factions rode over the territory, hunting up their political opponents as if they were Seminoles or Apaches; outrages of the most frightful nature were committed, while armed settlers, despite the trouble continued to flock thither from both the free and the slave states.

The free-state men established a government at Lawrence, with General Lane at its head. The place was sacked and burned, March 20, 1856, and on the 4th of July the free-state legislature at Topeka was broken up by companies of artillery and dragoons of the Federal army, by direction of the President.

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Governor Shannon was now weary of his hopeless task, and he



THE ASSAULT UPON SENATOR SUMNER

gave place to John W. Geary, of Pennsylvania. The latter ordered both parties to disarm, but neither paid any attention to the mandate. The governor proceeded to take vigorous measures; but, finding that he was not supported by the President, he resigned, and was succeeded by Robert J. Walker of Mississippi. Governor Walker tried to do right, and as a consequence offended everybody. He was turned out, and was followed by J. W. Denver of Ohio, who did not wait long before resigning to make room for Samuel Medary. Finally, events so shaped themselves in the struggle that the free-state men won, and Kansas was admitted to the Union, without slavery, January 29, 1861.

The
Various
Gov-
ernors

PERIOD V
—
CONSOLIDATION AND
EXPANSION
1829
TO
1861
—

Senator
Sumner
As-
saulted

The scenes of violence caused by the quarrel over slavery penetrated the halls of Congress. Charles Sumner, United States Senator from Massachusetts, delivered a stinging speech on "The Crime against Kansas," to which Senators Cass, Douglas, Mason, and Butler made equally violent replies. Some days later, while Sumner was sitting at his desk writing, after the adjournment of the Senate, he was approached by Preston S. Brooks, a representative from South Carolina, and assaulted so savagely with a cane that he fell senseless and bleeding to the floor. Sumner was so seriously hurt that he was obliged to go abroad for medical treatment, and did not resume his seat for nearly four years. Although much indignation was excited by the dastardly act, Brooks became a hero in his state, and was commended throughout the South.

The
"Know-
Noth-
ings"

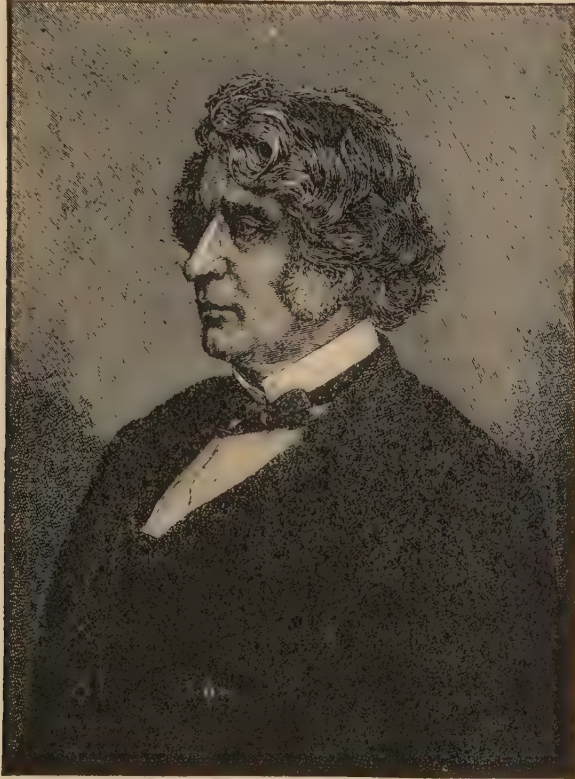
During Pierce's administration, a new political party came into existence. It was formed in New York, in 1853, its aim being to check foreign influence, especially that of the Irish Roman Catholics. Its motto was "America for Americans." The members called themselves "Native Americans," but their common name was "Know-Nothings," because, when questioned by outsiders as to their doings and objects, they invariably replied that they "knew nothing." No one could become a member of the organization unless both he and his father were natives of this country. It is said that the salutation of one member to another was the silly interrogation: "Have you seen Sam?" The new party increased fast. The repeal of the Missouri Compromise, in 1854, caused a general overturning in politics, in which the Whig organization passed out of existence. In the autumn of 1854, the Native Americans carried several states, and some degree of consternation spread among their opponents. In 1855, they were successful in New York, Massachusetts, and California, but the Democrats won in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Indiana. There was a widespread hope that the Native Americans might become a national Union party, for they had many supporters in the South, and thus the impending strife between the sections might be averted. The Native Americans met in Philadelphia, on Washington's birthday, and nominated for President, Millard Fillmore, and for Vice-President, Andrew Jackson Donelson of Tennessee. At the same time, a convention assembled in Pittsburgh and formed the present Republican party, whose foundation principle was opposition to the extension of slavery. Before adjournment, the

Birth
of the
Republican Party

delegates decided to hold a national convention on the 17th of June, the anniversary of the battle of Bunker Hill.

The Democratic convention assembled in Cincinnati on the 2d of June. Franklin Pierce was brought forward as a candidate, but developed no strength. Senator Douglas had a strong following; but the nomination went to James Buchanan of Pennsylvania, for Presi-

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CHARLES SUMNER

dent, with John C. Breckinridge of Kentucky, for Vice-President. The Republican convention met in Philadelphia on the 17th of June, and nominated John C. Fremont, the explorer, and William L. Dayton of New Jersey, as its candidates. In the convention, Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, received 110 votes for the vice-presidency.

In the election of 1856, Buchanan carried nineteen states, and received 174 electoral votes; Fremont eleven states, and 114 electoral votes, and Fillmore one state (Maryland), and 8 electoral

Presi-
dential
Election
of 1856

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votes. The result of the election was disquieting to the South, for it saw a political party not yet two years old carry nearly all the free states, and come perilously near electing its candidates. Already there was a strong party of secessionists in the South, who began preparing for the struggle that was to come four years later. The Native American, or Know-Nothing party, rapidly dwindled, and was finally absorbed by the other parties. Its successor was the American Protective Association, which was formed in 1893 and 1894, and gained a considerable following in many states.





CHAPTER XIX

BUCHANAN'S ADMINISTRATION—1857-1861

[*Author's Note:* The passage of the Nebraska bill in 1854, involving, as it did, the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, augmented the intensity, and renewed the hatreds of the contest between the advocates of freedom and the friends of slavery. The greatest of the many great men that were brought into prominence as leaders of this contest was Abraham Lincoln. An eminent historian says of him: "The name of Lincoln will remain one of the greatest that history has to inscribe on its annals."]

"His occupying the chair of state," says Emerson, "was a triumph of the good sense of mankind and of the public conscience." Special authorities for this period are: "Mr. Buchanan's Administration," written by himself, the various histories of the Civil War, and "Life of Lincoln," by Mr. J. G. Nicolay and also by Mr. John Hay.]



JAMES BUCHANAN was born in Franklin county, Pennsylvania, April 13, 1791. Admitted to the bar in 1812, he was elected two years later to the state legislature. He served as a representative in Congress from 1821 to 1831; was minister to Russia, 1832 to 1834; United States Senator, 1834 to 1845; Secretary of State under Polk, 1845 to 1849, and minister to Great Britain, 1853 to 1856. At the close of his presidential term he retired to his home at Wheatland, near Lancaster, Pa., where he died in 1868. President Buchanan was the only bachelor who, thus far, had been President of the United States. He did not retain any members of the Cabinet of his predecessor. His Secretary of State was Lewis Cass of Michigan; Secretary of the Treasury, Howell Cobb of Georgia; Secretary of



James Buchanan

War, John B. Floyd of Virginia; Secretary of the Interior, Jacob Thompson of Mississippi; Secretary of the Navy, Isaac Toucey of Connecticut; Postmaster-General, Aaron V. Brown of Tennessee; Attorney-General, Jeremiah S. Black of Pennsylvania.

The troublous times of secession were at hand, and had much to do with disintegrating this Cabinet toward the close of the administration. Cobb's sympathy with the South led him to resign, December 8, 1860, and Thompson did not wait long before following him. John A. Dix, of New York, became Secretary of the Treasury. Upon the resignation of Thompson, his duties were performed by his chief clerk. Cass resigned in December, 1860, because of his impatience with the timid policy of the President; whereupon Black was transferred to his department, and Edwin M. Stanton, of Ohio, was made Attorney-General. The latter's uncompromising Union sentiment, expressed in the most vigorous terms and manner, drove Floyd out of the Cabinet. He was succeeded by Joseph Holt, of Kentucky.

Some of the incidents already related occurred during the administration of Buchanan. It will be remembered that the British minister to this country (Mr. Crampton) had been dismissed for the offense of enlisting men on our soil to help England in her war against Russia. For a time, no minister was sent to take his place, and there was considerable muttering and talk of war between the countries. Good feeling was restored by a curious incident. The English ship *Resolute*, engaged in arctic discovery, was caught in the ice and abandoned by its crew in 1854. An American whaler came upon it adrift, a thousand miles from where it had been left. Our government presented it to Queen Victoria, in December, 1856, and the words spoken by the representatives of the two nations on the interesting occasion were so conciliatory that they produced a soothing effect in both countries. Lord Napier soon arrived as minister from Great Britain, and friendly relations were fully restored.

President Buchanan had trouble with the Mormons in the first year of his administration. They were incensed because Utah was refused admission to the Union. Brigham Young, the successor of Joseph Smith in the presidency of the church, ruled with a firmness which few dared to question. He did not show the slightest fear of the United States government; the Federal judges sent thither were defied, and they and the other officials were finally driven from the

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Secession
Troubles
in the
Cabinet

Mormon
Troubles

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Resist-
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the Mor-
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territory. The plea made by the Mormons for this violence was that the personal character of the United States officials was offensive. This so angered our government that Alfred Cumming, Superintendent of Indian Affairs on the upper Missouri, was sent to displace Brigham Young as governor. Judge Delana Eckels, of Indiana, was made chief justice of the territory, and an armed force of twenty-five hundred men, under Colonel Albert Sidney Johnston, was ordered to Utah to put down interference with the laws of the United States. The Mormons prepared to resist this force. Brigham Young, in a proclamation, denounced the troops as a mob, forbade them to enter the territory, and called upon his followers to drive them out. When the troops reached the territory, in the autumn, they were attacked (October 6, 1857), several of the supply trains destroyed, and eight hundred oxen driven off. Colonel Johnston was obliged to find winter-quarters on Black's Ford, near Fort Bridger, while Governor Cumming declared the territory in a state of insurrection.

The
Diffi-
culties
Ended

While affairs were in this critical state, Thomas L. Kane entered Utah in the spring of 1858, by way of California, with conciliatory letters from President Buchanan. An understanding was brought about between Governor Cumming and the Mormons. Governor Powell, of Kentucky, and Major McCulloch arrived soon afterwards with a proclamation from the President offering pardon to all who would submit to the national authority. The offer was accepted by the Mormons, and, when order was restored, in May, 1860, the troops were withdrawn from the territory.

Brigham Young died in 1877, and was succeeded by George Q. Cannon, an Englishman, who was a Congressman. The Mormon power was now divided among a large number of church dignitaries, instead of being centralized as it had been in Young. The Mormon organization had a strength that few outsiders suspected. It was constantly increased by immense numbers of foreigners, the Mormon missionaries being industriously at work all the time. One million dollars annually was turned in from the "tithe," or church tax, each man being compelled to pay one-tenth of his earnings. Polygamy, though not a part of the original Mormon faith, was still practiced by a few. Henry Lunt, a Mormon bishop, on one occasion declared: "Our church has been organized only fifty years, but behold its wealth and power! We look with perfect confidence to the day when we will hold the reins of the United

States government. This is our present temporal aim; and, after that we expect to control the continent."

The year 1857 was attended by a period of financial distress which recalled the "hard times" of twenty years before, under President Van Buren. The treasury of the United States, which had for some time overflowed, was now empty, and the new government for a while was unable to pay its officers. One cause of the panic was the too rapid building of railway lines in regions where they could not possibly pay expenses for many years. The theory was that these lines would attract settlers to the sections, which would thus become prosperous. But the settlers did not come so quickly as was expected, and the men who had put their money into the roads, being financially pressed, began to sell their shares at prices which alarmed others, and caused a fall in stocks. Capital is always sensitive, and the panic, once begun, rapidly spread. There was much loss; but the country was so rich in resources that the suffering was far less than in 1837.

In 1857, Dr. S. W. Francis, of New York, obtained a patent for the most practically useful typewriting machine that had appeared up to that time. The purchaser of the rights of Francis obtained new patents ten years later, but his machines were never manufactured in any great quantity or put on the market. Other patents were subsequently granted, and, in 1873, Remington & Sons, of Ilion, N. Y., pushed the typewriter into prominence. Several hundred varieties of typewriting machines were later manufactured, and they became an almost indispensable handmaid of communication and commerce.

Minnesota was admitted to the Union, May 11, 1858. It derives its name from the Minnesota river, the word meaning "Cloudy Water." The region was first penetrated by La Salle and Father Hennepin, in 1680. They were followed by others, but it was a long time before the country was fully explored. Fort Snelling was built in 1819, and the first building was erected in St. Paul, in 1838. The region was organized into a territory in 1849, with an area almost double that of the state. In 1850, the population of the whole territory was about six thousand. Settlement was for a time delayed by difficulties arising out of the rights of the Indians to the soil. These rights were surrendered by treaty in 1851, when the increase in population became so rapid that seven years

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The
Panic of
1857

Inven-
tion
of the
Type-
writer

Admis-
sion
of Minne-
sota

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—Admission of
Oregon

were sufficient to entitle Minnesota to admission into the Union.

Oregon became a state on the 14th of February, 1859. The name is supposed to be derived from an herb abundant on the coast, called in Spanish *oregano*. It was originally a part of the Louisiana purchase, but was so remote that for a long time little was known about it. Captain Gray, of Boston, entered its principal stream in 1792, in the ship *Columbia*, which name he gave to the river. He brought back so favorable a report that much interest was speedily excited. The region was visited by Lewis and Clarke in 1804, at which period they traced the Missouri to its source, and descended the Columbia to the Pacific. The section then abounded with fur-bearing animals and an extensive trade was long carried on. The association most largely engaged in this enterprise was the American Fur Company,* which built Fort Astoria, in 1811. John Jacob Astor was the chief member of the company. The hunters and trappers of the Hudson Bay Company also roamed over the region. From 1836 to 1839, there was a considerable migration by Americans overland to Oregon. In 1848, it was organized as a territory, including that portion of Washington Territory which was detached in 1853. Emigration thither increased after the discovery of gold in California, and auriferous deposits were found in the territory; but it was soon seen that the agricultural products of Oregon were far more valuable than the yield of gold—the wheat, especially, being unsurpassed by that grown anywhere else.

The Dred
Scott
Decision

The slave question kept the country in a turmoil. A negro, by the name of Dred Scott, was a slave of Dr. Emerson, of Missouri, who was a surgeon in the United States army. He removed to Rock Island, Illinois, and, in 1836, to Fort Snelling, Minnesota, taking each time his slave with him. At Fort Snelling, Scott married a negress who was a slave of Dr. Emerson. Two children were born to them, after which the family was taken to St. Louis, and the members sold. Scott brought suit for his freedom. The case was appealed from the courts of Missouri to the United States Supreme Court, where the decision was not rendered until March, 1857. Chief Justice Taney, who delivered the judgment of the court, declared that no negro, whether free or slave, was a citizen of the

*In Washington Irving's "Astoria" will be found an interesting account of the American Fur Company, and of the perils and trying experiences of the hunters and trappers engaged in the fur trade.

United States, and there was no constitutional process by which he could become so. Therefore, under the laws of the United States, a negro could neither sue nor be sued, and, as a consequence, the court had no jurisdiction in the Dred Scott case. It was asserted, further, that a slave was simply a piece of property or personal chattel, to be taken from state to state like a horse or cow, without the rights of the owner being affected. The Missouri Compromise and the compromise of 1850 were therefore unconstitutional, and null and void. This decision was concurred in by six associate justices of the Supreme bench (Wayne, Nelson, Grier, Daniel, Campbell, and Catron), while Judges McLean and Curtis dissented. The South was delighted, and the North incensed.

The first telegraphic cable across the Atlantic was completed August 5, 1858, the credit being mainly due to Cyrus W. Field, a rich merchant of New York. In the preceding March, 2,500 miles of wire were manufactured, and the laying of the line began at Valentia, Ireland. Two British and two American vessels were employed; but the cable broke twice, and the vessels were obliged to return to Plymouth. A new start was made on the 20th of June, but operations were stopped by a severe storm. The next attempt was successful. Twenty-five hundred miles of wire were laid along the ocean bottom from Valentia to Newfoundland, and for the first time the Old World and the New were joined by a submarine telegraph. On the evening of August 5, the English directors telegraphed to the directors in America: "Europe and America are united by telegraph. Glory to God in the highest; on earth peace, good will toward men." A few minutes later Queen Victoria sent a message to President Buchanan, expressing her satisfaction at the completion of an undertaking so likely to preserve harmony between the two nations. The message was received at Newfoundland in about an hour after its transmission began. The event was celebrated with illuminations, military parades, salutes of artillery, and a fusillade throughout the country of orations and speeches. But a disappointment soon came. The insulation was faulty, the difficulty increased, and on the 4th of September the wire ceased to work. Another company was organized in 1860, and the attempts to lay a cable were renewed. More trouble and failures followed; but complete success was attained in 1866, since which many cable lines have been laid

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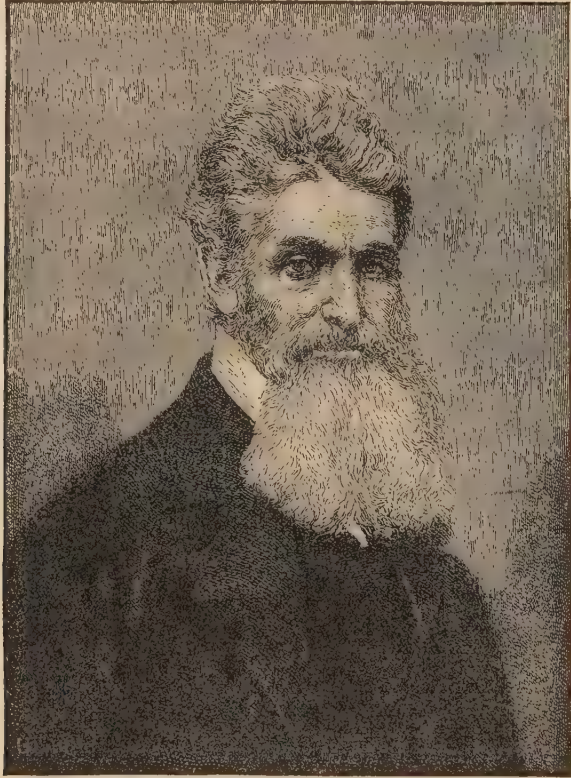
The
First
Atlantic
Cable

Trouble
with
the Cable

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and kept in active service. Telegraphic communication around the globe was soon completed.

Another dispute with England arose in the summer of 1859. That country desired the possession of the small island of San Juan, near the island of Vancouver, in the Northern Pacific, for the reason that



JOHN BROWN

The San
Juan
Dispute

it commands the narrow channel between British Columbia and the United States. The treaty of 1846 was so indefinite in its wording that there was ground for the claim to San Juan by each nation. Neither would yield, and for several years the island was jointly occupied by British and American officials. The Americans became impatient, and General Harney, commanding the military department of Washington Territory, sent reinforcements to the little force stationed on San Juan. The governor of British Columbia protested, and declared that he would land his own soldiers if the movement was

not stopped. General Harney refused, and General Scott was sent thither. This tactful old soldier discussed the matter so courteously with the governor that they soon reached an understanding. All the American troops except one company were withdrawn, and work on the fortifications begun by General Harney ceased. The English squadron sailed away, and all for the time became peaceful.

All this, however, did not settle the question of the ownership of San Juan; nor was it settled until October, 1872, when the emperor of Germany, to whom the dispute had been referred, decided in favor of the claim of the United States. The island was evacuated by the British on the 22d of the following month.

Important mineral and oil discoveries were made about this time. It was learned, for instance, that coal was not confined to two or three states, but that our country, in various regions, was rich in that commodity, and probably contained as much as all the rest of the world together. In 1858, gold was found at Pike's Peak, Colorado, and later was discovered in numerous other sections in the far west. The Comstock lode of silver was brought to light at Virginia City, Nevada, and many other mines were developed later. The Rocky Mountain region was found to abound in almost every kind of mineral. In 1859, oil was struck near Titusville, in northwestern Pennsylvania. Immense quantities of petroleum have since added untold millions to the wealth of the country, and continued the source of princely revenues. The silver produced by the Comstock lode alone was worth more than a quarter of a billion of dollars.

During the troublous times in Kansas, one of the most active anti-slavery leaders was John Brown, who lived at Ossawatimie. He was a fanatic, who hated slavery so implacably that he came to believe that it was his mission to destroy it wherever it existed. He strove to enlist well-known Abolitionists in his enterprise of invading the South and freeing the slaves, but none would join him. Men like Frederick Douglass, one of the most gifted of negroes, and many others sought to dissuade him; but he would not be turned aside from his purpose. His plan was to invade Virginia with a small military force, and there call upon the slaves to rise in revolt. He believed that they would flock to his standard by the thousand, overcome their masters, and spread death and desolation throughout the South. He collected twenty-one men, including his three sons, Owen, Oliver, and Watson, and five colored persons, who met se-

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Mineral
and
Oil Dis-
coveries

John
Brown

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cretly on the Maryland shore, opposite Harper's Ferry, in the month of October, 1859. On Sunday, the 16th of the month, they crossed the railway bridge over the Potomac, seized the United States arsenal, stopped the railway trains, captured a number of citizens, set free such slaves as they could find, and held the town for more than twenty-four hours.

The
Raid at
Harper's
Ferry

Pickets were thrown out, and, as a precautionary measure, every person who ventured abroad was arrested. A puzzled negro, who did not understand matters, ventured too near the bridge and was shot. The telegraph lines were cut, and arms sent to the slaves, in the expectation that they would rise at once. The infuriated citizens attacked the armory the next morning. The insurgents fired through the windows, and kept them at bay for a time; but it soon became apparent that the building could not be held against the assailants, whose numbers were increasing every minute. Some of Brown's men now tried to escape. One leaped into the river, and swam desperately for the other shore. He was fired upon and wounded. Climbing upon a rock, he threw up his hands in token of surrender; but the Virginians were not in the mood to receive the surrender of any of those who were seeking to destroy their homes. One of them waded to the man and blew out his brains. Brown took refuge in an adjacent engine-house, with his wounded and prisoners, where he remained throughout Monday and the night following. Meanwhile, news had reached Washington of the startling occurrence. On Tuesday morning, Colonel Robert E. Lee arrived on the spot, with a force of marines and land troops. The local militia of Virginia had been called out; but Brown, although no hope remained, even then would not surrender. The doors of the engine-house were battered in, and the little band was at once overcome. Brown had been wounded, two of his sons killed, and others seriously injured during the final attack. Brown and his six companions were tried by the Virginia authorities, and hanged on the 2d of December. The occurrence caused fearful excitement both North and South. The Southerners looked upon it as the direct result of the teaching of the Abolitionists, and believed that the raid had been inspired and aided by leading men in the North; whereas, as has been shown, Brown himself was the only one responsible. His act was condemned as strongly by right-thinking men in the free states as by those south of Mason and Dixon's line.

Failure
of the
Raid



HARPER'S FERRY

The time again approached for the presidential election. The whole country was seething with excitement, while the North and the South drifted farther and farther apart. Many people in the free states sympathized with their brethren in the South, and were willing to go to reasonable lengths to hold them in their allegiance to the Union; while thousands in the South still loved the old flag above everything else, and prayed that the threatening clouds might pass harmlessly by.

Strange and ominous actions took place, as the critical time approached. South Carolina, fiery, impetuous, and headlong, was the leader in the secession movement, as she had been in the nullification outburst, nearly thirty years before. The Democratic National Convention, at which there were present six hundred delegates, assembled in Charleston, S. C., on the 23d of April, 1860, to nominate candidates for the presidency and vice-presidency, and to make a declaration of their principles. Caleb Cushing, of Massachusetts, an able statesman, who was an ardent pro-slavery Democrat, was chosen chairman. The discussions soon developed differences that could neither be reconciled nor compromised. The extremists withdrew, and formed what they called a "Constitutional Convention," with James A. Bayard, of Delaware, at their head. They adjourned, to meet in Richmond, Va., in June. The regular convention broke up, to meet at Baltimore, June 18, neither convention making a nomination. The seceders presented themselves at the Baltimore convention and demanded recognition, which was refused. The convention then nominated Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois, for President, and Herschel V. Johnson of Georgia, for Vice-President. The seceders placed in nomination John C. Breckinridge of Kentucky, for President, and Joseph Lane of Oregon, for Vice-President. Previous to this (May 9, 1860), the National Constitutional party had nominated John Bell of Tennessee, for President, and Edward Everett of Massachusetts, for Vice-President. On the 16th of May, the Republican convention met in the "Wigwam" in Chicago, and nominated Abraham Lincoln of Illinois, for President, and Hannibal Hamlin of Maine, for Vice-President. Thus there were four distinct tickets in the field, whose principles may thus be defined:

1. The Northern Democrats (the Douglas and Johnson party), who thought that the people of each territory should settle the ques-

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Growth
of Seces-
sion
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Various
Presi-
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ples of
the
Different
Parties

tion of slavery in that territory; but they pledged themselves to abide by the decision of the Supreme Court.

2. The Southern Democrats (represented by Breckinridge and Lane), who declared that it was the right and duty of Congress to protect slavery in the territories, whenever the owner of slaves took them thither.

3. The Republicans (whose nominees were Lincoln and Hamlin), who asserted that it was the right and duty of Congress to forbid slavery in the territories.

4. The American party (represented by Bell and Everett), who pledged themselves to support the "Constitution, the Union, and the enforcement of the laws." These principles were deemed, however, too vague for the party to develop much strength.

The result of the election in November was as follows:

	States	Popular Vote	Electoral Vote
Lincoln.....	17	1,866,352	180
Breckinridge.....	11	845,703	72
Bell.....	3	589,581	39
Douglas.....	2	1,375,157	12

Seces-
sion of
South
Carolina

The election of Lincoln gave the South the pretext for which she was admittedly waiting. The state convention of South Carolina met in Charleston on the 17th of December, with David F. Jamieson as presiding officer. On the 20th, the following resolution was unanimously adopted by the one hundred and sixty-nine delegates, and afterwards signed by every one:

"We, the people of South Carolina, in convention assembled, do declare and ordain, and it is hereby declared and ordained, that the ordinance adopted by us in convention, on the 23d of May, in the year one thousand seven hundred and eighty-eight, whereby the Constitution of the United States was ratified, and also all acts and parts of acts of the General Assembly of the state, ratifying amendments of the said Constitution, are hereby repealed, and the Union now subsisting between South Carolina and other states, under the name of the United States of America, is hereby dissolved."

The excitement in Charleston passed all bounds when it was known that the ordinance of secession had been adopted. Business was suspended; horsemen dashed hither and thither, shouting and cheering; men embraced each other on the streets; the walls were placarded with posters; women appeared with secession hats and

bonnets; the state flag of South Carolina was waved everywhere; church bells pealed and cannon boomed; everybody seemed to be delirious with joy. Ah! could they but have drawn aside the curtain, and seen a few years into the future!

Having taken this momentous step, South Carolina went ahead with defiant confidence. She appointed ministers to proceed to Washington to treat for United States property within the limits of South Carolina; but the "ministers" were refused recognition by President Buchanan. At the same time, she issued an address to the other slave states, inviting them to join her in the formation of a Southern Confederacy. A commissioner was appointed to each state, which was invited for that purpose to send delegates to meet those of South Carolina at Montgomery, Ala. Governor Pickens, as chief magistrate of the new nation, was authorized to receive ambassadors, consuls, etc., from foreign countries. He appointed his cabinet ministers, and independent South Carolina entered upon its brief and stormy existence.

President Buchanan was in a trying situation. The country was fast drifting into war, and he felt himself helpless. Howell Cobb, his Secretary of the Treasury, was a violent secessionist; and having done his utmost to forward the cause, resigned on the 8th of December, and went south. Four days later, General Cass, Secretary of State, also resigned. The immediate cause of Mr. Cass' resignation was Mr. Buchanan's refusal to reinforce Major Anderson at Fort Sumter. He was a strong Union man, and was disgusted with the disunion plotting around him. The successor of Mr. Cass was Jeremiah S. Black, the Attorney-General, while Cobb's post was taken by Philip F. Thomas, of Maryland, who was soon succeeded by General John A. Dix, of New York.

The President at this juncture issued a proclamation recommending the 4th of January as a day of fasting, humiliation, and prayer. There was a general observance throughout the North, for no one could fail to see the peril gathering over the country. South Carolina knew that, if war came, she would be the first to receive the blow, since she had been the first state to secede. She began, therefore, to strengthen the defenses in Charleston harbor, consisting of Castle Pinckney and Forts Sumter, Moultrie, and Johnson. Fort Sumter was the strongest. It was occupied in October, 1860, by Colonel Gardner, who attempted to increase his supply of ammuni-

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Defiance
of the
State

Drifting
into
Civil
War

Affairs
in
Charleston
Harbor

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tion. Secretary of War Floyd promptly removed him because of this. Floyd was a secessionist, and helped the South by sending thousands of arms to the forts in that section. Major Robert Anderson, of Kentucky, succeeded Gardner. He saw the weakness of the government's position at Charleston, and understood the meaning of the actions in the city. Major Anderson, who was an earnest Union man, wrote to Adjutant-General Cooper, in Washington, urging that steps should be taken at once to strengthen the defenses. But Cooper was a secessionist, and took care that nothing was done, while Floyd, the other superior officer, was also a disunionist. Finding himself virtually abandoned, Major Anderson repaired Castle Pinckney, and strengthened Fort Moultrie. Then, shortly after the passage of the ordinance of secession, he wrote to Washington, stating that a steamer was stationed near Fort Sumter, with the evident purpose of keeping out all reinforcements for the fort, and of seizing the latter, if the national government refused to give it over to South Carolina. This letter, like Anderson's previous ones, received no attention.

Anderson's
Removal
to Fort
Sumter

It was impossible to defend the four forts, and Anderson decided to place his command in Fort Sumter. The women and children were sent to Fort Johnson, a round-about proceeding, intended to mislead the people in Charleston, who were narrowly watching him. Then, on the night of December 26, with the full moon shining overhead, the garrison passed over to Fort Sumter. Several men remained to spike the guns, burn the carriages, and cut down the flagstaff. Anderson sent a letter to Adjutant-General Cooper, telling him what he had done; but the letter was preceded by a telegram from the Charleston people to the war-office. Secretary Floyd was indignant, and demanded an explanation from Anderson for acting as he had done without orders. Anderson replied that his course was necessary as a means of self-defense. At the Cabinet meeting, Floyd angrily insisted that the President should allow him to order the withdrawal of the garrison from Charleston harbor. The President refused, whereupon Floyd resigned and went southward.

Joseph Holt, of Kentucky, now succeeded Floyd. He telegraphed to Anderson approving his action, which was commended by Congress a few days later. The authorities of Charleston were enraged, and declared that Major Anderson's act was a virtual declaration of war. Hundreds of the young men demanded that they should be

allowed to attack Fort Sumter. This was not permitted; but Fort Moultrie and Castle Pinckney were immediately occupied. Then the custom-house and post-office were seized, while the militia took possession of the government arsenal. The revenue cutter *William Aiken* was surrendered by the officer in command. When Anderson demanded of the commander at Moultrie by what authority he occupied it, the reply was, "By the authority of the sovereign state of South Carolina, and by command of her government."

President Buchanan, who had been accused of weakness by the friends of the Union, displayed more energy when he saw the unanimity with which he was supported by the North. A satisfactory step that he took was to make Edwin M. Stanton Attorney-General. Stanton possessed great ability and tireless energy, and was a determined Unionist. The unarmed steamer *Star of the West* was sent to Charleston with supplies for Major Anderson. This action so offended Thompson, the Secretary of the Interior, that he resigned and proceeded to Mississippi, to help in the work of secession. The *Star of the West* approached Fort Sumter on the morning of January 9. A battery on Morris Island fired on her, and she ran up the Stars and Stripes. The battery continued firing, and Fort Moultrie added a few shots. Then two steam-tugs and an armed schooner moved out to intercept the *Star of the West*, whose captain put about and returned to New York.*

Anderson knew nothing of the coming of the supply-steamer, although the secessionists had been notified. He demanded from Governor Pickens the meaning of the outrage upon the flag, declaring that, if it was not disavowed, he would accept it as an act of war, and would not allow vessels to pass within range of his guns. The governor declared the act that of the state of South Carolina, which would resist any attempt to reinforce him. Anderson referred the matter to Washington for instructions, the governor consenting to allow the messenger to proceed thither.

The appeal of South Carolina to her sister states met with a prompt response. The following states called conventions and passed ordinances of secession: Mississippi, January 9; Florida, January 10; Alabama, January 11; Georgia, January 19; Louisiana, January 26; and Texas, February 1. The friends of secession were

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The
Star of
the West
Fired
Upon

Seces-
sion of
Other
States

*This date (January 9) is considered officially as the beginning of the Civil War.



FIRING ON THE "STAR OF THE WEST"

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active in other states, which soon followed. The forts, arsenals, and other property of the Federal government within the limits of the slave states were seized.

When Louisiana seceded, January 26, 1861, the United States mint at New Orleans was seized, and there were struck \$254,820 in double eagles and \$1,101,316.50 in silver half-dollars, the United States die of 1861 being used. The bullion was exhausted in May, 1861, when the coinage ceased, and the United States dies were destroyed. A Confederate states die was then made for silver half-dollars; but the relief was too high to be used in a coining-press. Four half-dollars were struck with it on a screw-press, and these compose the entire coinage of the Confederate states. They are among the most valuable coins in existence, though less valuable than the silver dollar of 1804.

The general convention of the seceding states met at Montgomery, Ala., on the 4th of February. Those represented were South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Florida. Howell Cobb, who a short time before had resigned the secretaryship of the United States treasury, was chosen chairman. In his address he asserted that the secession of the states was "fixed, irrevocable, and perpetual." Mr. Memminger submitted a series of resolutions, declaring that it was expedient to form a confederacy of the seceded states. At the suggestion of Alexander H. Stephens, it was agreed that the assemblage should be known as a Congress. It was decided that the Constitution of the United States, with a few slight changes, should be that of the Confederacy. The provisional President was to hold office for one year, unless superseded by the establishment of a permanent government; each state was to be a distinct judicial district, the judge having all the powers vested in the district and circuit courts; the several districts together composed the supreme bench; wherever the word "Union" occurred in the United States Constitution, the word "Confederacy" was substituted; the African slave-trade was prohibited; Congress was empowered to forbid the introduction of any slaves from any state not a member of the Confederacy; all appropriations were to be made upon the demand of the President; and members of Congress were not to be prohibited from holding offices of honor and emolument under the administration. Other provisions were added, and the provisional constitution was adopted without opposition. All the members took the oath of alle-

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The Congress
of the
Confederacy

The Confederate
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giance on the 9th of February, and then proceeded to the election of a President and Vice-President of the Confederacy. Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, and Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, were chosen to these offices by a unanimous vote. On the following day committees on foreign relations, postal affairs, finance, commerce, military and naval affairs, judiciary, patents and copyrights, and printing were appointed.

The Confederate
Flag

It is quite a task for a new nation to form a flag that shall be acceptable as well as appropriate. Many designs were submitted to Congress, at the beginning of the Revolution, before the Stars and Stripes was adopted. So there was much discussion over the flag of the Confederacy. It was finally decided that it should consist of two broad horizontal bands of red, separated by a white band of the same width, the Union blue with seven white stars in the center. This flag bore considerable resemblance to the old one—so much so, indeed, that fatal mistakes sometimes took place in battle. A change therefore, was made. Two white bands crossed the flag diagonally, with the stars showing upon them. This made a flag which could not be mistaken. The flag as first fashioned was unfurled on the 4th of March over the State House at Montgomery. The Confederacy never had a seal, the one ordered in England not arriving until April, 1865.

Jefferson Davis was a United States Senator when his state seceded on the 21st of January. He bade the Senate good-by and went to his home in Vicksburg, Miss., where he received notice of his election to the presidency of the Confederacy. He left at once for the capital of Alabama. The whole South by this time was enthusiastic over secession, and his journey was attended by scenes of the wildest enthusiasm. The train at times was unable to proceed because of the shouting multitudes swarming around it. History relates that he was obliged to make more than twenty speeches on the way. When he entered Montgomery, on the 15th instant, he was received by the militia, with the shouts and cheers of the citizens and the thunder of cannon.

Inauguration of
the
President
and
Vice-
President

The President and Vice-President were inaugurated on the 18th of February. A large platform was built in front of the State House, upon which Davis, Stephens, and other officials appeared at noon. The proceedings were opened with prayer, after which President Davis delivered his inaugural. This included an argument intended

to prove that the states composing the Union had the right to withdraw from the same whenever a majority of the citizens wished to do so. "Thus," said he, "the sovereign states here represented proceeded to form this Confederacy; and it is by the abuse of language that their act has been denominated revolution. They formed a new alliance, but in each state its government has remained."

President Davis chose the following Cabinet: Robert Toombs, Secretary of State; Charles G. Memminger, Secretary of the Treasury; L. Pope Walker, Secretary of War; Stephen Mallory, Secretary of the Navy; John H. Reagan, Postmaster-General; Judah P. Benjamin, Attorney-General. The Confederate Congress authorized the President to borrow \$15,000,000, and to accept 100,000 volunteers for one year. Thus it may be said the Southern Confederacy was established and its brief and terrible history begun.

Meanwhile, the North was watching events and preparing for the tremendous struggle that was at hand. Abraham Lincoln, at his home in Springfield, Ill., carefully followed the history that was making each day, and waited to take upon his shoulders a burden such as no man had borne since the days of Washington. He invited many of the leading statesmen and thinkers of the North to visit him at his home. They generally went singly, and earnest consultations were held, the result of which must have been valuable to the President-elect, as well as to the country at large.

It is a striking coincidence that the two men destined to become, in many respects, the two most conspicuous figures in the most tragic episode of the history of the United States, should have been closely associated in time and place of birth. In the year 1808, in a county in the backwoods of Kentucky, Jefferson Davis, who, fifty-two years later was to become the chosen leader of the forces seeking to disrupt the American Union, was born. One year later, in 1809, in an immediately adjoining county of that same backwoods region, was born the man chosen by his fellow countrymen to preserve that Union.

Abraham Lincoln was born in Kentucky, February 12, 1809, and was yet a lad when the family moved into the backwoods of Indiana. His father was so poor that he lived in a wretched log-cabin with only three sides, the fourth being open to all kinds of weather. The son attended the country school only at intervals. He studied hard, however, and, when the chance offered, borrowed books from his

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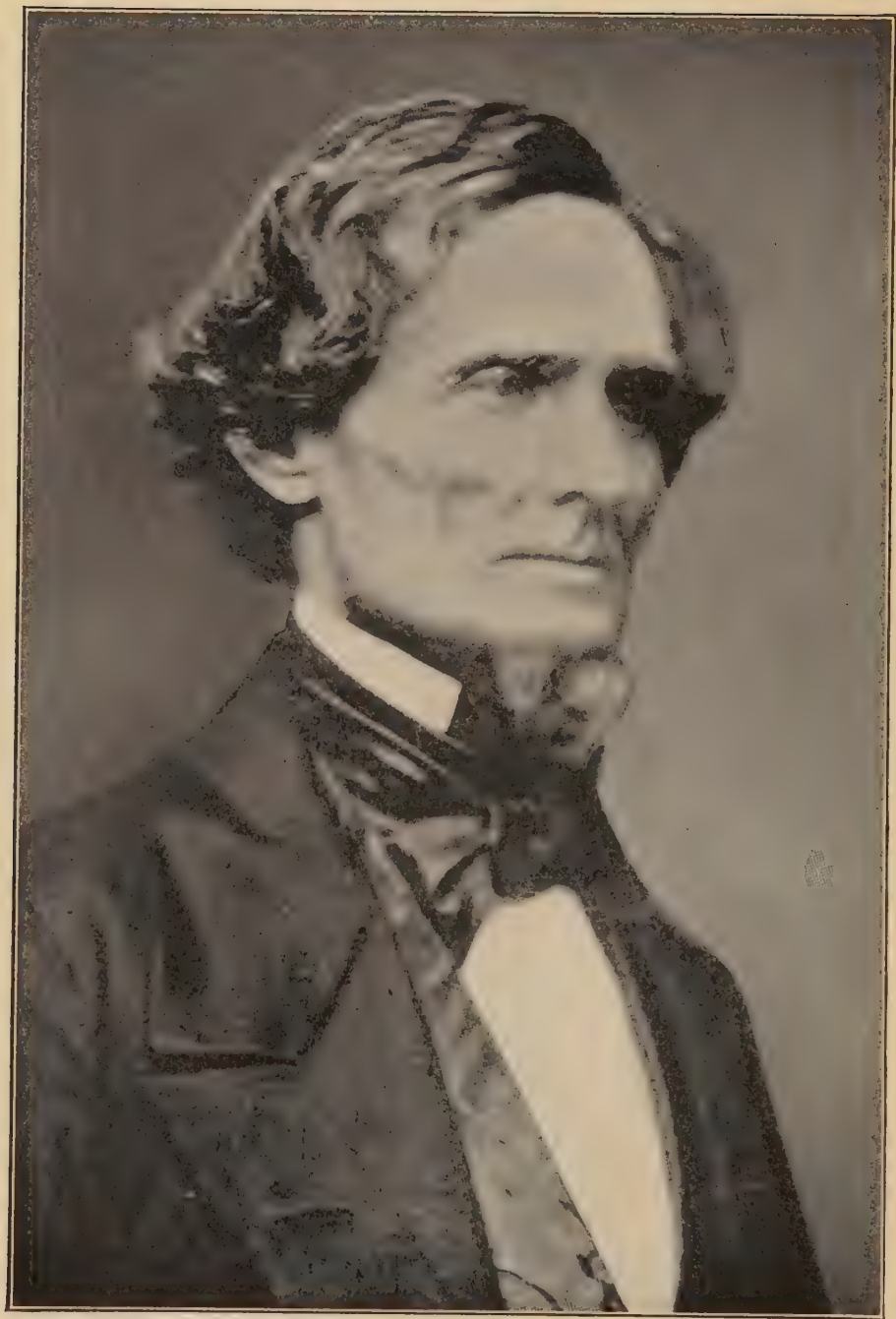
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The
Confederate
CabinetAbraham
Lincoln



JEFFERSON DAVIS

friends. His favorite reading was the Bible, together with a life of Washington and one of Henry Clay.* Lincoln adopted one good rule: he tried at all times to express his thoughts in plain, simple words, avoiding those high-sounding ones which many persons think are a sign of learning. He meant that whatever he said or wrote should be understood. He grew to be six feet four inches in height. He was thin, angular, and awkward, but had rugged strength, and was the best wrestler in the neighborhood where he lived. He was

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LOG CABIN IN WHICH LINCOLN WAS BORN

good-natured, and gifted with a fine sense of humor, which made his stories, which he was fond of telling, witty and to the point. This power often rendered his speeches effective when the finest logic would have failed.

Early in his career the tall, raw-boned young man took charge of a flat-boat, which went down the Ohio and the Mississippi rivers to New Orleans. At the end of the voyage there was no way of getting back with the boat, so it was sold with the produce. When some stubborn pigs could not be induced to go upon the boat, Lincoln seized them in his muscular arms, one after the other, and carried

 The
Youth of
Lincoln

*Perhaps Lincoln's preference for words of Anglo-Saxon origin and the charming simplicity and clearness of his style are owing more to the Bible and to Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress" than to all other books combined.

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Popu-
 larity of
 Lincoln

the squealing animals aboard. Growing tired of his poverty, the father of Lincoln moved to Illinois. The son helped to build the cabin in which they lived, and he split a great many rails used in building fences around the fields. Because of this he was often called "The Rail-Splitter of Illinois," when he was a candidate for the presidency. He worked as a common laborer, but all the time was striving to improve his mind. He became a clerk in a grocery store, and everybody liked him. He was always ready to tell an amusing story; and was so honest that, if he found he had given a customer change that was a few pennies short, he would walk several miles to correct the mistake.

Lincoln helped to raise a company to fight in the Black Hawk War in 1832, and was elected captain. The war ended before the men had a chance to show what they could do. Then Lincoln endeavored to conduct a grocery store with a partner. Neither of them gave much attention to business, and a failure followed. Lincoln lived as sparingly as he could for several years, until he had paid every cent that he owed. No man could have been more honest than he. After this, he tried several kinds of business, but did not make much success with any of them. When he was postmaster, he established a "free delivery" by carrying round the letters in his hat and distributing them among his neighbors. He became so popular that his friends elected him to the state legislature. He bought a new suit of homespun clothes and walked a hundred miles to Springfield to attend the assembly. When the session ended, he took up surveying; but he kept on studying as he gained the necessary leisure. He became a lawyer in 1837, and then went to Springfield, Ill., to live. In law he maintained the characteristics by which he formerly had been known. His honesty and kindness never left him. If he found that his client had a poor case, he would tell him so, and take no fee from him. If the man was in the wrong, Lincoln would not act as his lawyer. If he knew the client was so poor that he would never pay him a penny, Lincoln would work just as hard as if he were sure of a fee of several thousand dollars.

Lincoln
 as a
 Lawyer

In 1846 he was sent to Congress, where he voted against the Mexican War, but attracted little attention among the great men in that body. He, however, opposed the extension of slavery into the territories, and no one needed to be in doubt as to his sentiments. He pitted himself against Stephen A. Douglas as a candidate in

Illinois for United States Senator, and was beaten through the gerrymandering of the legislative districts; but his great ability, his wit, his statesmanlike grasp of public affairs, and his astonishing power as a debater attracted the attention of the whole country. He and Douglas were always warm friends; and when Lincoln became President, Douglas assured him that he would do everything he could to support him in his stand for the Union.

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Abraham Lincoln was one of the very greatest Presidents we have had; and as time passes, and the judgments of men become cool and impartial, his place in the esteem and reverence of his countrymen, as well as in the pages of history, becomes more exalted. During the terrific strain of the Civil War he seemed guilty at times of unseemly levity; but no one could be less open to the charge, for none felt more profoundly than he the responsibility of his position and the gravity of the crisis in the nation's affairs. His heart was so kindly in its sympathy that he could not share the hatred felt by many against those who were striving to destroy the Union. The burden that he carried so bravely for years would have crushed a man of ordinary mould; and it was only when weighed to the ground by the mountainous responsibility that he saved himself from "going to pieces" by an indulgence in his native wit and humor. A few minutes passed thus, and he would rouse himself to the task before him with renewed power and a matchless ability.

The
Great-
ness of
Lincoln

Had Lincoln received a military education, he would doubtless have been the foremost general of his time. He may have hindered military successes now and then by his interference, but oftener he aided by his instinctive grasp of the situation. He was gifted with the subtle power of reading men. A patriot in every fiber of his being, all patriots found in him an unflinching friend. He could never close his ears to the wife or mother, pleading for husband or son who had fallen short in his duty. The life of many an erring soldier was saved, when stern justice called for his punishment, until it became a proverb among officers that the only way to enforce rigid discipline was to do it before the friends of the condemned could reach the President with their prayers for mercy. A brooding melancholy often sat on his brow, for humor and pathos are twins, and the heart most susceptible to mirth is, we know, the quickest to respond to sorrow. He saw the hand of God in everything, and felt

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at all times that he was the instrument used by Omnipotence for the working out of His own wise ends.

Lincoln's genius lay in his intuitive power of perceiving the right moment to do a thing. Extremists were always impatient with him. He was too slow for those who demanded a vigorous prosecution of the war, and too fast for timid or conservative people. He was condemned for waiting so long before issuing the Emancipation Proclamation, and censured for doing it too soon; and yet no other hour of its signing would have made it so irresistibly effective. His speech at the dedication of the field of Gettysburg, it is admitted, has never been surpassed in sweetness, in pathos, and in beauty by any orator. It is one of the gems of our language, and will remain a classic through all time. What more expressive tribute was ever rendered to man than the "canonization" of Abraham Lincoln in later days by the foremost writers, speakers, and thinkers, even by those who from 1861 to 1865 gave all their energies to the destruction of the Union?



CONFEDERATE FLAG

